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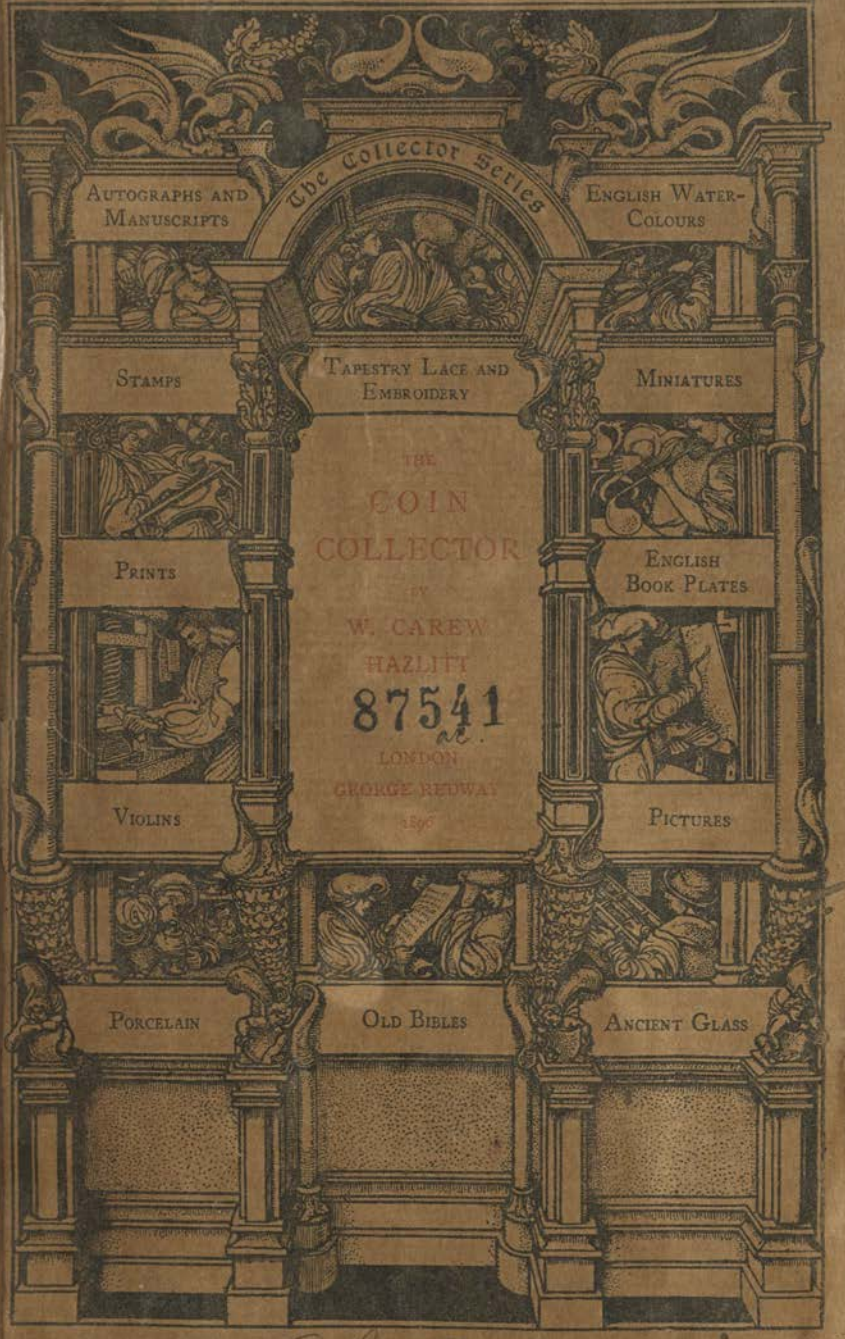
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LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

COINS

INTRODUCTORY

THERE are many collectors of antiquities, whatever the class may be, who must have felt that they would have been under very considerable obligations, both in respect to time and expense, to such a work of reference as might have enabled them to take a general survey of the proposed field of research, and select the ground which it seemed to them best to take up, supposing that it was out of the question to work on more comprehensive lines. We feel sure that in numerous cases disappointment has been experienced on the too tardy discovery of the unsuspected or imperfectly known magnitude and cost of a collection of old china, old books, old coins, or anything else of the kind, followed sometimes by a relinquishment of the pursuit, sometimes by an enlargement of the scheme; and, apart from the extent and outlay proving themselves in excess of anticipation, the absence of a tolerably trustworthy guide to the principal points and particulars demanding attention on the side of the buyer, and to the dangers, or some of them, which beset the

inexperienced amateur, must be regarded as inconvenient and undesirable. For surely it is far better for all concerned to start, if not with eyes quite open, at all events not with eyes quite shut.

It is perfectly true, when we narrow the discussion to numismatics, that coins are sought by different persons from different motives or aims. The collector who chooses to buy specimens regardlessly of condition and value, just for the sake of forming a sort of assemblage of the currencies of older and extinct communities or of the former monetary systems of existing ones, does not perhaps perceive the necessity or utility of counsel. There have been thousands of human creatures who have lived and died under the hallucination that they were the proprietors of important and interesting cabinets of coins, whereas those which were really valuable might have been counted on the fingers. It is so, always has been, and always will be, perchance, with every kind of curiosity and relic, so long as money is to judgment and taste in the ratio of 1000 to 1. We have associated with individuals who had succeeded, much to their apparent satisfaction, in amassing archæological remains of various sorts, and if in their entire length and breadth there was an item or so above mediocrity, the fact was to be ascribed to some fortuitous circumstance, for which the owner was not immediately responsible.

There are already two or three works belonging to the category of General Handbooks of Numismatics. Akerman's "Introduction to the Study of Ancient and

Modern Coins" and "Numismatic Manual," 1840–48, are alike admirable; but they represent the knowledge of half-a-century since, and are very weak indeed in the Continental section. "The Coin-Collector's Manual" of Humphreys, originally produced about sixty years ago, continues to reappear with new title-pages, and is not only in many respects obsolete, but mischievously deceptive, inasmuch as its text is the standard of a period before the whole subject was placed on a new footing by modern scholarship and enterprise.

It is probably unnecessary to insist on the wide difference between the apparently trivial hobby and the real aims and uses of coin-collecting. It has been an object of interest and curiosity from ancient times, and has been adopted as a pursuit and a research by many of our greatest scholars and public characters in England of all ranks and professions, from the throne downward. But the manifold and immense value of the study as an aid to history and the progress of commerce and art, no less than to an elucidation of religious sentiment and popular superstition, must be allowed to be a relatively modern development, for which we have to be grateful to the surrender by the earth of its hidden treasures and to the interpreters of the lessons and secrets there discernible.

The province of numismatics is so widely spread, that it embraces all periods and countries from the earliest introduction of coined money, and concerns a vast number of historical personages and events. The magnitude of the study is lightened to us by the

sectional labours of a host of able and enthusiastic inquirers, and we are at liberty to select the particular field or line which appears to suit our particular views. But if we cast our eyes around, we soon discover that the range of special pieces extends over the whole area, and that while we possess within the limits of modern Europe, or even of Britain, many remarkable examples, we should form a very imperfect idea of this aspect of the matter if we forbore to comprise the ancient Greek and Roman series and certain salient productions of the East; and it is apt to be a source of agreeable surprise to many who have not devoted much attention to this topic, when they for the first time enjoy an opportunity of examining a veritable coin of the good Caliph Haroun El Reschid, or of that illustrious ruler of Hindostan, so greatly nearer to us, the Emperor Akbar. It is natural enough, of course, that both should have struck money, as they in fact did; but every one does not immediately realise that the Caliph of Bagdad was an actual reality (he was contemporary with Charlemagne), or that the author of the famous "Institutes" was a great practical sovereign in the same way as Queen Elizabeth was. He was almost exactly parallel with her. Then, again, what collection of this class would be judged complete in the absence of Cleopatra—*the* Cleopatra—the lady of whom, when we read of her achievements and triumphs and regard her features, we are nearly betrayed into suggesting that it must have been in her manner that much of the charm lay.

INTRODUCTORY

The numismatic products of every part of Europe exhibit their own peculiar features of interest and claims to attention; but a careful and leisurely collation of one with another shews us more and more how much in this respect the moderns owe to the ancients, or how little the world has acquired in its riper life which it had not learned and forgotten in its youth. In the sort of *coup-d'œil* which our volume affords, that great lesson is readable in many and many a place.

One of the earliest collectors of coins in England is said to have been Prince Henry, son of James I. But the pursuit is undoubtedly of great antiquity, and the Romans are credited with having sought the money of those nations which preceded them, and notably the Greeks, in power and in the arts. There was a very prolonged interval, during the whole of the mediæval period and later, when the ancient coinages were neglected and destroyed; and even when the taste for memorials of the past revived, it was at first the medal rather than the current money which attracted attention—the medal in the wider sense in which it still finds acceptance in many languages and systems. The modern Europeans made amends for their barbarous predecessors by engaging from the seventeenth century onward with unbroken continuity in the collection and study of these inestimable treasures; and we know how busy the pickaxe and the spade have been in reclaiming from the earth in all parts of the world trodden by the ancients the buried heirlooms of centuries—numismatic archives, which have in some instances made the writing

of history possible, and in others its rewriting necessary. These eloquent though inarticulate expounders of the transactions of mankind in remote ages have created, nearly within living memory, a new era in almost every department of human science, and have reduced our older books of reference and our former speculations alike to waste paper. The prosaic and utilitarian spirit of our modern money forbids us to believe that in the time to come men will turn to it for instruction from any point of view, save perhaps its betrayal of incipient national decline.

Fortunately for those who follow numismatics as a calling, the inducements to collect are manifold indeed. There may be said to be no piece so destitute of commercial value, so insignificant in aspect, so artistically and historically trivial, which does not meet with a home, if not with an admirer. Poor specimens are frequently of the greatest use to the student in settling a moot point of detail. You cannot, as with a book, make a good coin out of two bad ones; but you can complete a legend or a type; and instances are on record where it has asked half-a-dozen more or less imperfect pieces to supply the whole reading and story.

To specialists, whose treatment is naturally sectional and exhaustive, the compiler of a volume which may not be entitled to aspire to a higher rank than that of a general numismatic chart must not calculate upon being very serviceable. Yet, although a collector on this narrow gauge may, and usually does, know what he is doing, to him it is apt to be acceptable for the

sake of collateral illustration and comparative study, since regions geographically far distant from each other are often found to present striking points of agreement in their monetary laws and patterns from a variety of agencies; and many, again, like to have the means ready to hand of ascertaining what is outside as well as within their own frontiers.

It may not be superfluous to reiterate the observation, trite as it may be, that in the present class of monument—nay, in it alone not seldom—we seek and find many of the most precious truths pertaining to the history and fortunes of the human race in all parts of the globe from the sixth century before the Christian era. The magnificent Greek series, so ably edited by Dr. Head, is itself of incalculable value, not only in illustrating customs, arts, and opinions, but in determining the names and situations of places no longer known, and the titles and chronology of dynasts of whom we meet with no other trace. The Roman coinage, inferior in execution, variety, and antiquity, remains an imperishable and unique record of that extraordinary people in their rise, greatness, and decline, and reflects all the stages of national progress and decay during eight centuries of fluctuating political life and activity.

The currencies of the European Continent, and indeed that of England, take up the thread where the Romans, as it were, let it fall; and setting aside the money struck since the close of the old *régime* in 1789, we find ourselves the inheritors of a stupendous accu-

mulation of coins in all metals, of all countries, of all periods, which the incessant and combined labours of numismatic experts have, more particularly within the last half-century, reduced to some degree of order and sequence by the means of monographs and local studies, without arriving at a solution of many moot problems, much less at the end of the task. The modern European coinage has perhaps enjoyed at the hands of those most competent to deal with it far less attention than it merits. Many localities are still without any systematic account of their currencies, which has to be obtained by casual or indirect means; and even such as have secured specialists to describe them cannot be said, as a rule, to possess more than dry lists or calendars, destitute of allusion to the human interest resident in so large a proportion of these remains.

In the treatment of the coinage of the United Kingdom from British times, condensation and succinctness have of course been imperative, while the larger books on this branch of the theme, in regard at least to the more modern coins, are perhaps too copious and minute. The Anglo-Gallic series has been classed with the French, which it chiefly follows in its models and denominations. It is trusted and thought that no essential facts have been overlooked.

It is only necessary to make a survey of the extent of the field covered by a manual like that now offered to the coin-collector, and of the bulky and even voluminous publications which scholars have dedicated to accounts of the numismatic histories of individual

countries and towns, to become aware of the difficulty of treating the subject in an intelligible and satisfactory manner on so contracted a scale as that to which it is here compulsorily reduced. On the other hand, there is at present no single book of reference where students and amateurs can, as a starting-point, gain a general idea and estimate of the proportions and limits of their plan for forming a cabinet either on a comprehensive or on a restricted basis. The grand divisions of the volume are:—1. Greek; 2. Roman; 3. Continental; 4. British, or money of the United Kingdom and the Colonies in its successive stages of development. There are collectors who make their choice and stand by it; others who collect different series at different times; others whose scheme is miscellaneous or desultory. To all these classes increased facility for judging within a convenient compass what constitutes a series, its chronology, its features, its difficulties, ought to be acceptable. To master even the prominent monographs is a task which is sufficient to deter all but the most earnest and indefatigable enthusiasts; and as usual, no doubt, collections are made on a principle more or less loose and vague. At any rate, the first step should be, we apprehend, to reconnoitre the ground, and measure the space to be traversed, with the approximate cost.

In the production of a monograph, it may be said that there is no detail which is too minute for notice, and no point so trivial but that it deserves admission in its proper place as an incidental or collateral illus-

tration. But, again, the monograph may be of more than one kind—a treatise devoted to the records of a country or of a city, or of a particular epoch or reign, or, finally, of the coins of a given type associated with a locality or with a group of localities. Dr. Head describes his very scholarly, admirable, and interesting *Historia Numorum*, 1887, as a "Manual of Greek Numismatics;" it is a royal 8vo of over 800 pages. Stevenson's "Dictionary of Roman Coins," 1889, runs to 928 pages. The present writer's "Coinage of Europe," 1893, makes 554 pages. If we turn to undertakings limited to a city, we find the bulk augmenting in proportion to the narrowness of the scope; and this class of numismatic work is of the highest value when it has had the advantage of local information and experience. The process, by which accounts of well-nigh every place in the world known at any time to have been the source of a coinage, great or small, permanent or temporary, have been printed by specialists, has been carried on within the last half century so assiduously, that a complete corpus of numismatic literature, including certain recognised catalogues, such as the D'Amecourt, Reimmann, Rossi, Robert, Montenuovo, Meyer, Ligny, is a library in itself, and a large one.

To compile a sort of Index Raisonné to such a body of material, with select illustrations, has been, then, the object of the writer; he has mapped out in outline the entire field of numismatic activity in ancient and modern Europe, and has reserved to those who consult

his pages the option of inquiring further, and of regulating their course by the general indications here supplied. In the space allotted to him, to accomplish more than this was impossible.

It is obvious enough that the multiplicity of books and pamphlets on coins equally attests the vivid and lasting interest in the subject, and the slowly cumulative method whereby we have enriched our stores and our knowledge in this direction. Some of the most momentous additions to our means of properly understanding the ancient and mediæval series have accrued in the most fortuitous manner; one discovery has often led the way to others, till a chain of evidence has been gradually completed, and what appeared at first sight to be a stray and unconnected item has proved to be a member of a consecutive series; and incalculable service has been rendered to the cause by the host of honorary workers who have identified themselves with a small branch of the inquiry, or even with an isolated group of numismatic remains. We may mention, for example, the obligations under which we lie for the Bactrian coins to the late General Cunningham; for those of Cyzicus to Canon Greenwell; for the coins of Metz and Lorraine to M. Robert; for those of Venice to Schweitzer and Count Papadopoli; for the Siebenbürgen series to the Count of Montenuovo; and for innumerable revisions and additions in every department to the Numismatic Societies' Transactions of England, France, Germany, Belgium, and Switzerland. The works of Hoffmann and Poey D'Avant are of im-

mense importance for the royal and feudal money of France. The collections of the Cavaliere Rossi and of the Reimmann and Meyer families were indirectly instrumental in enlarging our acquaintance with the earlier coinages of Italy and Germany.

Some incidental notices will occur respecting Oriental coins. This is almost a class apart, and from the difficulties offered by the legends it is one sought only in specimens by ordinary European collectors. The majority of the more modern productions of this character are obtainable at rates very slightly in advance of the metallic values. The late keeper of the Medal and Coin Department of the British Museum possessed a special knowledge of the Oriental side of numismatics, and we are indebted to his scholarship for the ably edited volumes on the subject published under the direction of the Trustees, and to which the reader cannot do better than refer.

I

COLLECTORS AND COLLECTIONS

THE formation of Collections of Coins originated, not in the Numismatist, but in the Hoarder. Individuals, from an early stage in the history of coined money, laid pieces aside, as (nearer to our day) Samuel Pepys did, because they were striking or novel, or secreted them in the ground, like Pepys, because they were thought to be insecure. The former habit may be considered the germ of the coin-cabinet, as we know it; the latter accounts for those Finds which in modern times have enriched and advanced numismatic science to so prodigious and unlooked for an extent.

The French term *medaille*, as commonly applied either to a medal or a coin, is a key to the inducement, in the first instance, to treat this class of monuments as objects of study. During a prolonged period, when coins had fairly begun to attract attention beyond their commercial and current aspects, it was their historical and biographical interest which awakened and stimulated curiosity. It was as records of public occurrences and as portraitures of celebrated men and women that, first of all, the Greeks, then the Romans, and finally the modern Europeans, sought and cherished them;

and collections of medals proper and monetary medallions remained accordingly the principal, even when they had ceased to be the exclusive, aim of connoisseurs. In Great Britain the two systems have been usually kept apart; but in the continental coinages, down to a quite recent period, the ancient theory and feeling have survived.

There is no probability that the practice of accumulating extensive and scientifically ordered assemblages of coins was one favoured by our remote predecessors beyond the necessity, prior to the institution of banks, for storing specie in private houses; yet this very need may have led to the study of types by inquiring eyes, while, in the interval between an archaic law of exchange or of calculation by weight, a considerable proportion of the personalty had its appointed place of custody on the premises of merchants and others. Traders and travellers were just the two elements in early human societies which were most apt, from the exceptional facilities afforded to them, to look more or less critically at currencies, and to institute comparisons between one and another, if they were not sometimes instrumental in suggesting to those in authority changes and improvements.

The first distinct intimation, however, of a cabinet of medallic character, that is to say, of medals and coins selected on account of their illustrative and artistic value, is associated with a relatively modern epoch and with an English prince. Books, manuscripts, painting, statuary, ceramics, bronzes, even gems, had found

admirers long before Prince Henry, eldest son of James I., directed his attention to numismatics in conjunction with his pursuits as a book-lover. At his death in 1612 his medals and coins were valued at something like £3000; it must have been a large and important body of examples, if we take into account the difference in the monetary standard. The most remarkable point seems to be, that the taste developed itself thus strongly and abruptly in the Stuarts, a Scotish house influenced by French culture, if not by Spanish magnificence and fondness for display.

The great Pembroke collection, of which we fortunately possess a catalogue, belongs to the two succeeding centuries, and was probably formed during the reigns of Charles II., James II., William III., Anne, and George I., by Thomas Herbert, Earl of Pembroke and Montgomery (1685–1733), an enthusiastic antiquary; it is especially noticeable, inasmuch as it for the first time recognises the English and Scotish series side by side with the Greek and Roman; they constitute Part iv. of the posthumous Catalogue, 1746. The whole has been dispersed; and the prices realised by the fourth portion were very high, as it comprised numerous rarities acquired by the original noble owner, not for that reason, but for a far better one—their archæological interest.

It was doubtless the precedent set by such persons as Lord Pembroke, who has had occasional successors, such as Lord Ashburnham, Lord Hastings, and Lord Grantley, which encouraged the pursuit on the part

of others, with whom it might become an object of ambition to emulate the titled aristocracy and qualify themselves to occupy a footing based on *confrèrie*; and the cause of knowledge and the interests of science naturally profited by a generous competition, in which at last all classes found themselves joining. In the course of the eighteenth century, and still more, owing to political developments, of that of which we are personal witnesses, scarcely a vocation exists which has not, or has not formerly had, its representatives on the now long roll of coin-collectors. Every profession and industry have contributed their quota: the Church, the Law, the Army, the Navy, Medicine, the Stock Exchange, Commerce; and the taste, though more usually personal, is occasionally hereditary.

The older race of collectors, even in the century just behind us, leaned on the whole more toward the medal than the coin, and at any rate displayed an almost exclusive partiality for the Greek and Roman series, just as the bibliophile of the same period cultivated the Greek and Roman writers at the expense of the early English and continental literature. A survey of the catalogues of the average coin-collectors of a few generations since will shew how prevalent was this bias, and in how slight esteem the monetary productions and antiquities of England and Scotland were formerly held in comparison with those belonging to classical times. The Earl of Pembroke seems to have almost taken the lead in admitting the ancient money of his own country to a share of attention and space, and his

descendant, who sold his numismatic treasures, profited by the favourable change which had meanwhile occurred in the market value; and we must not forget that Hunter, the famous surgeon, also established an early sympathy with the modern and English side, as we see from his noble bequest to Glasgow. It was from the end of the first quarter of this century, when Mr. Sotheby sold the cabinet of Sir Mark Sykes, that the more modern lines of collecting may be said to have commenced. Marmaduke Trattle's extensive and splendid assemblage of English coins, however, was the earliest, perhaps, of first-class importance sold by the same firm, while in a pecuniary respect it proved, from the sum realised, one of the most remunerative and encouraging. This happened in the thirties; and the sixty or seventy years which separate us from that notable event have been witnesses to an instructive succession of similar episodes in the numismatic world, indicating the inevitable fluctuations in tastes and prices, but with a steady tendency, on the whole, to the acceptance of Condition as a postulate and an influence, and the surrender of inferior specimens to the student on the one hand or the crucible on the other.

A complete list of all the coin-sales which have taken place during the past fifty years in Great Britain and on the Continent would fill a larger volume than the present, and would scarcely exclude any rank or vocation in life within a liberal sphere. But, limiting ourselves to the more remarkable incidents of this class, we have to cite the Addington, Ashburnham,

Bieber, Bryce, Christmas, Cuff, Cunningham, Drummond, Duncombe, Durrant, Dymock, Forster, Marsham, Yorke Moore, Murchison, Rostron, Shepherd, and Thomas cabinets; and for Scotland, those of Coats, Lindsay, Martin, and Wingate, of which the first is still intact in the hands of a son. Of all these, the Thomas sale, the fruit of half-a-century's devotion to the pursuit, was the most comprehensive, embracing coins and medals of all countries and periods; while that of Mr. Coats may claim to be most complete in the Scotish series. Among the minor gatherings may be grouped the numerous instances where casual acquisitions by a family during generations in the course of travels abroad have insensibly grown into a hoard, and have included, as was the case very recently (1890) with the Beaufort coins, a few pieces of considerable value.

When we pass from collectors, whose possessions have changed hands, and sometimes have found permanent homes in public institutions, our thoughts and eyes naturally turn to such as are yet in the midst of us: Sir John Evans, Canon Greenwell, Mr. Murdoch, Dr. Hermann Weber, Lord Grantley, Mr. Richardson, and others; to whom it is hardly improper to add the name of the late Hyman Montagu, owner of the largest, richest, and most varied assemblage of numismatic monuments since the historical Thomas sale. The Montagu collection is now on the eve of dispersion, and some idea of its magnitude and splendour may be formed when we mention that it contains 1300 Roman *aurei*, and in the

medallic department 150 pieces wanting in Great Russell Street, besides an Anglo-Saxon series of extraordinary extent.

As regards the Sources of Supply, an intending collector (although at first collectors are often unconscious of being such) has to rely in the main on the auction and the dealer, the former being a medium of acquisition attended by many drawbacks and dangers, inasmuch as the coins in a sale under the hammer are seldom lotted in a way to suit private buyers, and as the trade not unnaturally resents that class of competition. It very greatly depends on the line chosen, with what firms one should have relations; but all the leading European centres have their numismatic *emporia*, and even in minor towns desirable coins are frequently offered for sale. Just at the commencement any one may provide himself very well in London; later on, according to the extent of his plan, he may find it possible and convenient to correspond with Paris, Madrid, Berlin, Vienna, Dresden, Leipsic, Frankfort-on-Main, Munich, Amsterdam, Amersfoort (near Utrecht), and other headquarters of experts and specialists. The sooner, in case he proposes to work on more or less ambitious lines, he acquires knowledge and judgment, the less likely it will be that he will grow dissatisfied with his hobby and out of humour with those who have contributed to indulge it.

A new aspirant to numismatic honours cannot do better when he has passed the "penny-box" stage, unless he leaps at one bound into the saddle, having

started at a maturer period of life, and with experience gained from others—he cannot do better than study attentively the best authorities. These are—(1) numismatic books of the latest date, whether monographs or general treatises; (2) sale catalogues, with the prices. Personal experience has satisfied the writer that commercially, as well as numismatically, a thorough acquaintance with the best catalogues is of the utmost value; and, besides those of the collections already named, the hunter for continental coins must bring himself into touch with the principal works of reference ready to his hand, as it were, in the shape of descriptive accounts of those magnificent cabinets which have been formed and dispersed in various parts of Europe. We may particularise the names of the Prince de Ligny, Meyer, Montenuovo, Reimmann, Robert, Rossi, as affording through their respective catalogues the most precious insight into the material which exists, and the probable and best means of accomplishing a new numismatic project.

Monographs have, of course, their clear use; but for general purposes they are apt to be too minute and elaborate, and they are calculated, perhaps, for the literary inquirer rather than for the amateur. At the same time, every one ought to be aware that of recent years a very large and important body of works has accumulated, dealing with the monetary annals of the smaller foreign States, on a scale which would be impossible on any other principle; and, on the other hand, those who desire to become conversant with the

development and processes of coinage at different epochs and in different countries will find it necessary to resort to such books as Ruding's "Annals," of which there are analogues in every European literature and language. A general notion of the subject is to be derived from the introduction to Mr. Robertson's "Handbook to the Coinage of Scotland," 1878.

Finds of coins do not usually prove of signal service to ordinary purchasers, as they are too often composed of specimens of the same piece indefinitely repeated, and as a rule occur under conditions which place them beyond the reach of the public, or at least of private individuals. As additions to our knowledge of types and mints, if not of actual products, these periodical events have constantly augmented our numismatic stores and information, verifying entries in ancient records, filling up gaps in series, supplying hitherto unreadable legends, and helping us in many other ways. The circumstances under which *trouvailles* have taken place are literally endless. A small hoard of English and foreign gold coins was very recently (1895) discovered at Westminster, encased in a sheet of lead. The unique half George noble of Henry VIII. in the Montagu collection was bought by Mr. Curt in Paris for a moderate sum, sold to the Rev. Mr. Shepherd for £90, and at his sale in 1885 realised £255. We must resist the temptation to dwell on this part of the topic.

To return for a moment to the questions of condition and difference of taste, it is not to be denied that some of the most precious fruits of numismatics have been

gathered and applied by persons who, like the late Mr. Babington, almost ostentatiously disregarded the state of the pieces under examination; and again, there is no doubt that real and cultivated interest in the pursuit has been first awakened by the accidental or desultory acquisition in early life of a handful of old coins selected from the familiar penny-box. The disadvantage which a practical and exact student incurs by the employment of defective examples lies in the inability to decipher the whole of the type; and this becomes tantalising when the object of attention is a supposed inedited variety.

An entertaining paper might doubtless be written on the eccentricities of the less experienced in the present branch of inquiry or recreation. Many numismatists, who lived to outgrow the crude conceptions of their novitiate, might, had they been of an autobiographical turn of mind, have let us into some curious secrets, some affecting only themselves, others where third parties were concerned. Few collectors, it is probable, have escaped without making mistakes, and without falling into the toils of the wily expert, while they graduate; and it goes without saying that the majority, as they seldom prosecute the undertaking to the end, seldom also attain sufficient discernment and mastery to enable them to achieve a satisfactory result. Instances are on record where simple gentlemen have, Procrustes-like, clipped their coins to fit the piercings in their cabinets; where an entire collection of Roman brass was submitted to treatment with brick-dust; and

where, once more, an owner, solicitous of patinated specimens, has improved upon the too leisurely processes of nature by enlisting the services of art, and superimposing a nice coat of green paint! These are ineptitudes; and so far as the more respectable numismatic houses in London and elsewhere are concerned, the clients whom they prefer are such as understand what they want and seek, and are prepared to pay for the proper article a reasonable price.

II

VALUE OF COINS

The estimation of ancient coins of different countries and periods depends on such a variety of considerations and circumstances that it is almost impossible and useless to attempt to form, for the instruction of the younger school of collectors, a scale or standard for judging either the merits or commercial worth of any class of currency. The interest with which this pursuit inspires those engaged in it is singularly diversified. Some are governed by topographical, some by chronological, and others by internal lines and limits; and the prevailing motive has, of course, a tendency to render others of secondary weight and influence. One man collects the coins of a particular country or epoch, and does not study their preservation; another looks exclusively to the state of his acquisitions, and disregards the places of origin, treating each item on its own individual merits as a curiosity or work of art. The choice of metals is a further contribution to the wide diversity of taste and fashion in these matters: there are collectors of gold only, of silver only, and of copper only. Then there are such as will buy a small coin and will not entertain the notion of a larger one,

and *vice versâ*. It must be evident that the coexistence of so many numismatic faiths or tenets unavoidably operates on the market, and sways it in different directions from time to time. A call for a given series, type, country, on the part of a small knot of amateurs suffices to inflate for the moment the quotations. These vicissitudes and fluctuations are incessant; and to them have to be added the surprises and perils which equally beset the buyer and seller in the shape of periodical finds of rare coins, with the result that the balance is at once disturbed, and prior investments depreciated for a longer or shorter period, according to the circumstances. The serious and sometimes puzzling fluctuations in the prices of coins are susceptible of the general explanation that the market is governed for the time being by a very small body of collectors, often buyers on the same lines. We see that it is now the Greek series, now the Roman, now the English, which is in the ascendant. An influential amateur is in the field for one or the other, and he gains followers; and the set makes a new tariff, which lasts till they are tired of their amusement, or have no further *desiderata*. In many of these cases prices current are adapted to the circumstances; there is an artificial inflation; the climax is reached at last, and the bubble bursts. The loss is to the last holders at high quotations. The foregoing criticism applies only to hobby-riders, not to the man who has a genuine feeling for the pursuit, and acquires coins, not because they are dear or cheap, but because he likes them. The Carfrae and Ashburnham sales

have recently reawakened the interest in Greek coins, and the Richardson cabinet of English ones went a little tamely; this was partly because several collectors of such things are dead or have withdrawn, and partly because the safe was merely a portion of the property, and that of a living person. The vast and varied numismatic treasures of the continent of Europe are still, in the main, a *terra incognita* to English and American collectors. Some say they may have their turn, and they will be found almost incapable of exhaustion.

The formation of priced lists of coins in Numismatic Manuals is, on the grounds above stated, shown therefore to be at best of very slight utility, and more often a source of error and trouble. It may gratify a possessor to read in a book or in a newspaper that some specimen which he acquired for a very moderate sum has realised a much larger one; but the price is a feature which is well known to rely on—(1) the condition; (2) the type; (3) the prior owner. Which of these factors is the most influential, it might be presumptuous to attempt to decide. Even condition is a relative term. The auctioneer tells you that a piece is "fine *for the coin*;" and this is apt to be most true when a coin has been struck on impure material by an unskilful moneyer, or when, as in so many of the colonial coins of all countries, siege-pieces, or currency of troubled and insecure reigns, the flan is too small for the die. At any rate, condition has of late commanded more general respect in England, France, and

the United States; and when one reflects that a private cabinet can be little more than a selection of specimens, it would appear to be very possible to reject examples which are undesirable on this account, if the object is simply to bring together a representative assemblage of productions agreeable to the eye and the taste.

Taking the type as a leading inducement, there are all the gradations from an absolutely different die to infinitesimal *minutiæ* of detail in one or another respect, constituting a variety. The prior ownership or *provenance* is a third agency, which impairs the trustworthiness of prices, and necessitates caution in forming estimates from coins surrounded by a sort of atmospheric *nimbus* of the value of normal specimens. It is, to some extent, with coins as it is with books.

The safest branch of early numismatics of every part of the world to cultivate in a practical sense as a collector is probably the copper and billon money: for, as the preservation becomes more generally a question in the choice of coins, it will be more and more apparent that productions in these two metals are the most difficult to procure in fine state, and if they occur in *trouvailles*, are almost always irremediably damaged by corrosion. On the contrary, through the extension of railway enterprise and other causes, early money in the more precious metals may be expected to arise as the fruit of excavations, as it has already done in Affghanistan, Asia Minor, Greece, Turkey, Italy, France, England, and other parts of Europe and Asia, revolutionising prices

as well as knowledge. The British Museum Annual Reports of acquisitions during the twelvemonth will give a good idea of the temerity of presuming either finality of information or uniqueness of examples.

Altogether, in the absence of a special line of study, where the outlay by right should not be excessive, the soundest counsel to tender to a new enterer on the numismatic field seems to be to obey two cardinal principles: (1) to buy the best quality; (2) to refrain from over-buying. The real art in these cases (it is equally so in other departments) is to hold one's hand; it is always easy enough to acquire to satiety; and it is not a whit more difficult to realise at a heavy sacrifice. The completion of a scheme of this kind usually extends over years: it is wise not to be in a hurry; profit by accidental opportunities and intervals of depression; and rejoice if, in the long-run, the harvest is not too ample. If the hammer can scatter in not more than three days the work of a lifetime, it is well; and if the standard is high and uniform, and the owner has shed an odour on his property, there is no reason for fear. It is the man who buys too much and not too well for whom his friends ought to offer up their prayers. It is highly necessary that the English or English-speaking collector of foreign coins should protect himself against two classes of danger: the want of conversance of English dealers, on the one hand, with the market value of a large proportion of the items belonging to the series, from the infrequency of their occurrence among us; and, on the other, the not unknown habit of the

PLATE I.

Continental houses of marking their property for an English or American meridian. But personal experience and judgment are the best safeguards in respect alike to this branch of the pursuit and to others, as the Greek, Roman, and British, where examples, especially those of higher value, rest on their individual merits, and dearness or the reverse are merely relative terms. Another very essential point to be held in view is, that it is a real disadvantage to a private cabinet to be too complete, as in sales abundance cloys; and it is always better to wait opportunities of securing *desiderata* at reasonable prices than to jump at the first offer.

The permanent and exclusive loyalty, not to a class or country, which may be very well, but to a more or less obscure series, is very apt to prove dangerous, inasmuch as there is the inherent accumulation of a body of virtual duplicates even where scarcely two articles are absolutely the same.

In the foregoing remarks there has been a *primâ facie* presumption that the dedication of an appreciable amount of property to this purpose has not taken place without some ulterior regard to reimbursement, since, even where one does not engage in a pursuit with an eye to profit, one may very possibly and very reasonably do so with the expectation that a fair proportion, if not the whole, of the outlay will return. This can only be the experience when judgment and taste are combined.

With coins it is as with books and every other species

of similar property. The quotation of auction prices can by no means be affirmed to be without its degree of utility; but it is a class of information which, in the hands of a tyro (they are not invariably young), is exceedingly apt to be fallacious and misleading. A dealer asks over £12 for a tetradrachm of Perseus of Macedon; you judge it to be dear; he shews you another, which will cost you a guinea. It is the same coin—with a difference. In the same manner M. Fontaine, the great Paris bookseller, lays down side by side two copies of an edition of a certain old book; one is to be bought for 100 francs, the other for 5000. Then, at a sale, the biddings are regulated not merely by the items themselves, but by the atmosphere; not by the state of business in the city, but by the presence in the market of two, or say three, buyers whose cabinets lack certain rarities, or perhaps by a competition between a private individual and the British Museum; or it may happen (who knows?) that the commissions for the highest figures have crossed over from the Continent; that MM. Rollin and Feuardent of Paris, M. Serrure, or some other continental firm, have instructions to secure this or that against all comers. That is the sort of agency which is behind prices and the fluctuations in prices; and for the bulk of a collection under the hammer there is no question that the character of the owner is a most potential influence. It is almost less what you have to sell than who you are that are selling; and it is immense odds in your favour if you are a dead hero. Fortune smiles upon the posthumous. The

auctioneer and the company, if they are not unanimous on any other point, agree in loving a departed celebrity; for if there were one or two tiresome traits in his generally faultless character, these are things of the past; he can play no more tricks.

Although the question of prices may be a moot one, and the uncertainty attending the product of any given coin under the hammer is, from an infinite variety of causes, as great as it is inexplicable, it has been thought best, on the whole, to attempt to meet the case to a certain extent, and in a section which we call *The Coin Market*, we have essayed to reduce to an intelligible form some statistics bearing on this topic, with a few particulars, which may be of interest and use, of a cognate character.

III

UNIQUE OR REMARKABLE COINS

It may be requisite to offer a few observations on a species of money, of which examples are found in almost every important European currency, both ancient and modern, and which owe their interest and value to the peculiar type or denomination, to the person by whom they were struck, or to the circumstances attending their appearance. In such works as Dr. Head's *Historia Numorum*, Stevenson's "Dictionary of Roman Coins," Akerman's various publications, the *Numismatic Chronicle*, and similar periodicals printed abroad, and the present writer's "Coinage of the European Continent," mention frequently occurs of coins which have descended to us in presumedly unique specimens, or are represented by two or three deposited in public collections. Nevertheless it cannot fail to be of some service to draw up a notice of the leading monuments of this rather tantalising class belonging to the respective divisions of our subject, more especially as, by directing attention to them, duplicates or additional examples may be discovered or identified.

It is not to be supposed that uniqueness or singularity of character necessarily involve intrinsic merits

and attractions, beyond the fact that these qualities often render rarity and beauty, or excellence, convertible terms. The most splendid examples of Greek workmanship and art may be seen, for instance, on a bronze coin obtainable for a few shillings in the highest state of preservation; and, again, they occur on the Syracusan dekadrachms or medallions, which are certainly costly, but are not very uncommon.

In the Greek Series, the pieces falling within the present category, if they were exhaustively enumerated, would prove a considerable body, distributed over the large numismatic area to which ancient Hellas extended. But we are dealing only with such extreme specialities as may appear to deserve an independent section. For instance, it will be perceived from a perusal of the *Historia Numorum* that in the archaic electrum coinage, so widely prevalent at one period, many unique examples are preserved in the English or French national collections, and that there were special issues of money, like that of the exiled Themistocles at Magnesia, of which not above two or three specimens have descended to us. Again, the Macedonian dekadrachm is as rare as most of the coinage of that power after the period of Alexander I. and the Archaic era is the reverse; and the coins of Bactria, once almost unknown, and very imperfectly so when Wilson published his *Ariana Antiqua* in 1841, are at present abundant, with certain exceptions—those exceptions of a somewhat momentous kind. For we have, appertaining to this rather fascinating succession of currency, illustrations of both

the points before us. A 20-stater piece in gold of Eukratides, King of Bactria, and a silver dekadrachm, unassigned, exist, so far as has been ascertained, in solitary specimens in the Bibliothèque at Paris and in the British Museum respectively; a silver tetradrachm of Plato, King of Bactria, is unknown outside the latter repository; and our national collection also possesses three examples of the highly interesting coinage (tetradr. and dr.), with the portrait of Eukratides on one side, and those of Heliocles and Laodice on the other. The true history of the Bactrian money is still involved in great obscurity; we have little more than internal evidence to guide us; but, except of Diodotus, the earliest autonomous ruler, and of Eukratides, we seem to have no gold. The 20-stater above mentioned was obtained in the Punjaub, sold to Rollin & Feuardent of Paris for £800, and by them, under the express authority of the Emperor, who paid half, transferred to the Bibliothèque for £1200. This was in 1867. The Museum dekadrachm, presented by Sir Wollaston Franks in 1887, is not well preserved. The gold of Athens is particularly rare, and that of Syracuse, of Macedonia, and of Egypt under the Ptolemies, though plentiful enough, equally conspicuous by its beauty of execution. One of the most recent finds in Russia occurred in 1895 at Reni, on the Pruth, and consisted of a large number of gold staters of Philip of Macedon. The discovery shews how widely spread was the distribution of this coin, of which the hoard had been probably buried during centuries.

When we come to the Roman coins, we first meet with the Roman *æs* in all its varied divisions and periodical gradations of weight, of which more will be said elsewhere; there are in the Consular or Republican Series certain families, of whose currency the examples are of the utmost rarity, and have baffled the researches of the most ardent and generous collectors, while others are common to excess even in fine state. The Yorke Moore cabinet lacked many examples to the last. The denarii, with the portraits of Julius Cæsar, Pompey, Mark Antony, Antony and Cleopatra, &c., the *Victoriati*, and the Family and Romano-Campanian gold, are always desirable. Of the Imperial Roman and Colonial money the proportion of notable pieces is large, and the normal rarities numerous. No brass or copper of Otho of Roman origin, and no first size of any kind, have yet been reported; the first brass of Matidia, Marciana, Plotina, Pertinax, and others, and the *aurei*, and even third brass, of more obscure reigns, are extremely difficult to procure. All the coins of Julia, daughter of Augustus, and wife of Agrippa, are rare; they are only found in the Colonial Series (Pergamus, Corinth, &c.), which also includes the *Judæa Capta* and other interesting historical examples. To the English collector the *Britannia* type in good state, and the gold and even silver of Carausius and Allectus, are to be commended. Throughout the series, but especially in the earlier first brass, we encounter reverses of great artistic merit and historical interest. Fuller information is to be

found in Cohen, or in Stevenson; the former should be consulted preferably, but in all cases opinions are safer as to the scarcity than as to the price. The valuation is apt to be influenced by circumstances.

Vast as is the field occupied by the Greek and Roman coinages, it is insignificant in comparison with that which the Continental or Modern Foreign Series covers, and this fact partly arises from the extraordinary multiplication of coin-yielding centres under the feudal system. A reference to the "Coinage of the European Continent" will readily shew how the subdivision of political authority and the gradual rise of numberless seigniorial fiefs to great power and affluence naturally led to the concession of monetary privileges and the establishment of mints over every part of the country, and to a competition between the different secular and ecclesiastical dignitaries for superiority in the splendour of their money, which frequently eclipsed that of the Crown. It is literally impossible within the compass of a few pages to do more than faintly indicate the principal objects of attention and research among the foreign numismatic productions of the earlier epochs; nearly all are specified by us in our former work; we follow the order of sequence there observed:—

Bavaria . . . . The heavy gold coinage of Maximilian I. of Bavaria, 1598.

Saxony . . . . The gold money of Saxony, 15th and early 16th centuries.

Brunswick . . The bracteates and widespread silver pieces of Brunswick-Lüneburg.

Oldenburg . .	The first dated pieces of Oldenburg and Hamburg.
Mecklenburg. .	The 10-ducats in gold of Wallenstein of Mecklenburg.
Brandenburg . .	The bracteates and first dated pieces of Brandenburg.
	The Colonial series for Hindostan, 1688–94.
Prussia . . .	The coins of Frederic I. of Prussia (1701–13).
Juliers . . .	The early denarii with portraits of the dukes.
Stolberg . . .	The bracteates and early gold of Stolberg.
Austria . . .	The Austrian *schauthalers* for Austria, the Tyrol, and Carinthia (1479–1533).
	The large gold coin with the jugate busts of Maximilian I., Carl V., and Ferdinand.
Bohemia . . .	The heavy gold money of Frederic of Bohemia (1620).
Hungary . . .	The Hungarian quintuple ducat of 1508.
Transylvania .	The earliest gold ducats, silver thalers, &c., of Transylvania. Any coin prior to 1531; the 100-ducat piece of 1677.
Switzerland . .	The gold dicken and silver thaler of Berne (1492–94), the St. Gallen *plappart* of 1424, and the Geneva sol d'or of 1550.
Poland . . .	The earliest gold money of Poland proper.
Russia	The gold coinage of Russia, 15th century; the piece in that metal struck by Peter the Great in remembrance of his parents; silver and copper patterns from 1723; the copper uniface roubles of 1725–26.
Sweden . . .	The sterlings in silver prior to Olaf Skötkonung.
	The earliest Salvator thalers.
	The early money of necessity, including that of Charles of Sudermania.
	The 5-ducat piece of Christina.
	The daler of Oxenstierna (1633).
Denmark . . .	The first dated money (1496).
	The daler of 1523.

Denmark . . .	The gold portugaloser and half portugaloser.
	The Colonial money of 1683.
Flanders . . .	The gold coinage of Loos and Rummen in Brabant.
	The gold coinage of Luxemburg under John of Bohemia (1309–46).
	The gold coinage of Wenceslaus, Duke of Luxemburg, King of Bohemia, Duke of Poland, &c., especially that struck for Prussian Poland at Liegnitz, and at his château of Mouzaive, near Luxemburg.
Cambrai . . .	The episcopal double mouton d'or, *sede vacante* (1368–78).
	The *demi-parisis*, lower gold and silver denominations, and copper money of Louis of Maele, Count of Flanders, 1346–84.
	The heavy gold of the Spanish rulers of Brabant.
	Any copper or other money struck by Maria Theresa for the Austrian Netherlands prior to 1744.
Holland . . .	Any money of the Counts of Holland prior to Thierri VI. (1122–57).
	The gold rijder of William V. (1346–59), struck for Holland.
	The Merovingian or other ancient money for West Friesland prior to Bruno III. (1038–57).
	The double kogger-daalder of 1601 in gold for West Friesland.
	The gold money of the bishops of Utrecht (1393–1496).
	The original imitation at Gorinchen of the English noble.
	The Campen imitation of the sovereign of Mary I. of England.
	Any inedited coins of Louis Napoléon, King of Holland (1806–10).
Gueldres . . .	The money of Batenborg and Cuilemborg.

UNIQUE OR REMARKABLE COINS

Italy	The Ostrogothic regal copper *nummi* with portraits.
	The gold coins of the Lombard kings.
Holy See . . .	The earliest papal *danari* (8th century), and copper (15th century).
	The Roman money of the *interregna* (1049–1362, 1527–28).
	The 5-sequin piece of Clement VII. (1525).
	The earliest *scudo di argento* (1585).
Venice	The first gold ducat under Giovanni Dandolo, Doge of Venice (about 1284).
	The *lira* and *bagattino* or *sesino Tron*.
	The multiples of the gold ducat (2 to 100).
	The gold *oselle* and double *oselle*.
	Any patterns.
Savoy	Any deniers or other money prior to Umberto II. (1080–1108).
	The silver *scudo* of Carlo II. (1504).
	The heavy gold of the 17th century (2 to 20 *scudi*).
	The coins of Emmanuel Filiberto (the Duke connected with Chillon).
Monaco . . .	Any coins prior to Onorato II. (1605–62).
Florence or Tuscany	The *grosso della volpe*.
	The *grossone* of 1530 of Nicolo Guicciardini, Gonfalionere of Florence.
	The *grossone* of Alessandro de' Medici, engraved by Cellini.
	The *piastro di oro* of Ferdinando II. (1610) engraved by Scipione Mola.
Bologna . . .	The zecchino in gold of Giovanni II., Bentivoglio, with his portrait.
Ferrara . . .	The coins of Borso d'Este, first Duke (1450–71).
	The gold and copper money of Ercole I. (1471–1502).
Mirandola . .	The double zecchino in gold of the learned Gio. Francesco Pico, Signore of Mirandola.

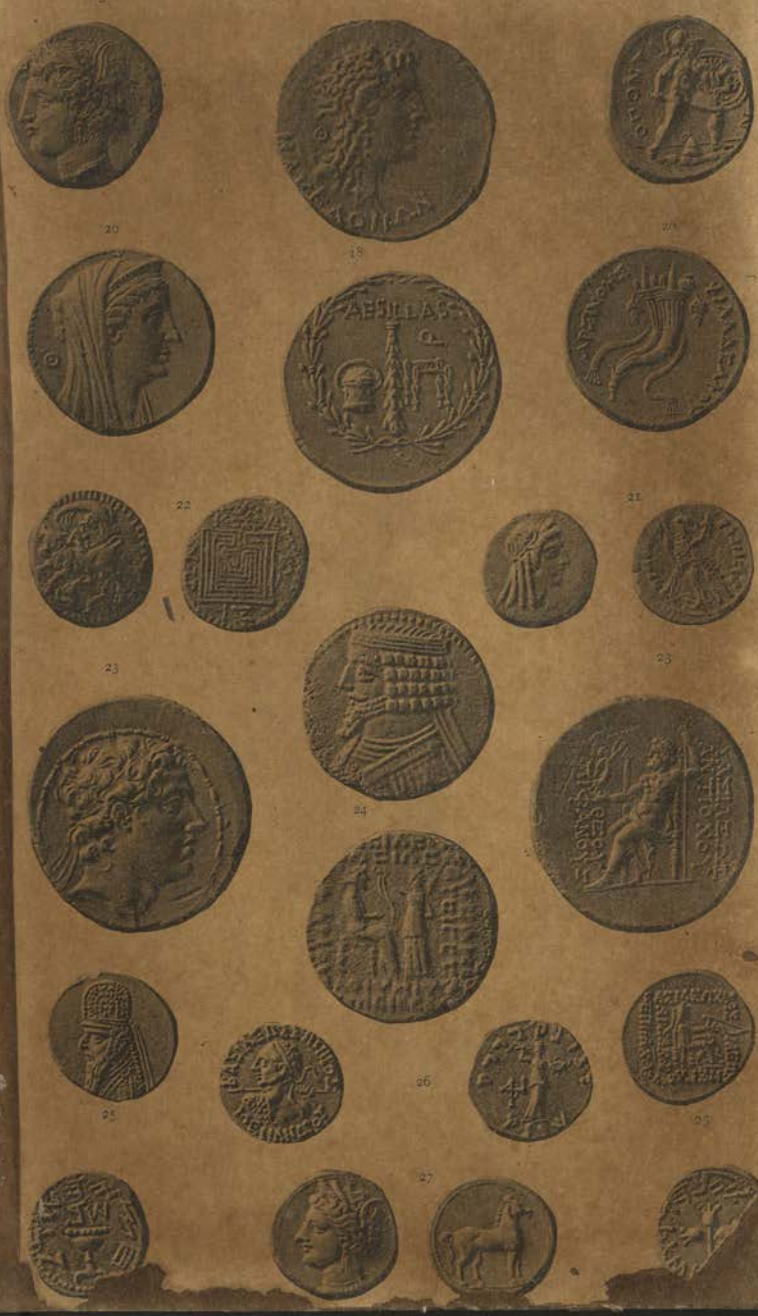
Montferrato . .	The *scudo di oro* of Teodoro, Marquis of M. about 1310.
	Any of the early money in fine state.
Mantua . . .	The heavy gold of the earlier Dukes.
	The *denaro* of the Virgilius type.
	The large silver *scudi di argento*, with portraits.
Milan	The gold and silver money of the Visconti, for the costumes and head-dresses.
Pesaro	The copper *sesino* of Giovanni Sforza.
Parma . . .	The *scudo di argento* of Alessandro Farnese (1592).
Genoa	The heavy gold and silver pieces (multiples of the *genovino*), usually ill-preserved.
Saluzzo . . .	The *medaglie* of 1503 and 1516.
Franco-Italian Series . . .	Any pieces in fine condition.
Sicily and Naples . .	See Hazlitt, *C. of E.*, p. 460.
Malta	See *ibid.*, p. 461–64.
France . . .	The gold coinage of the Merovingians, with their portraits.
	Certain special pieces of Pepin le Bref and Charlemagne (Hazlitt, p. 467).
	The *royal d'or* of Louis IX.
	The *cadière d'or* of Anne of Brittany (1498).
	The pattern-pieces of Nicholas Briot.
	The gold and silver *deniers de Foi* or *Pour Epouser*, Louis XIII.–XIV.
	The feudal coinages of Turenne, Dombes, and Sully.
	Certain patterns of Napoléon I.
Lorraine and Bar.	The earliest dated coin (1488), the écu of Charles III. (1603), &c.
	Any coin of Bar anterior to 1297.
Castile and Léon	The gold *dinhero* of Alfonso VIII. (1158–1214), with Arabic legends and *A L F.*
	The heavy gold of Pedro the Cruel and succeeding kings.

See further in Hazlitt, p. 515–16.

Arragon . . .	The heavy gold coinage indicated *infrà* under *Arragon*.
United Spain .	The 50 and 20 *excelentes* in gold of Ferdinand and Isabella, and Joanna and Charles.
	The 100-escudi in gold of Philip III. and IV. (1609–33).
	The 50-reales in silver of various reigns.
Portugal . . .	Any money of Henry of Burgundy, first Count of P. (1094).
	The *maravedi* and *marabotins di ouro* of Moorish pattern (12th–13th c.).
	The gold *dobra* of Duarte I. (1433–38).
	The gold portuguez of Emmanuel (1495–1521).
	The 4-cruzado piece in gold of Philip II. of Spain, for Portugal.
	The money of the Cardinal Dom Anthonio (1590).
	The money of João IV. (1640–56) in fine state.
	The 20,000 *reis* in gold of João V. (1725, 1726).
	See further in Hazlitt, p. 517, *et seq.*
England . . .	Certain silver pennies and copper or billon stycas of Northumbria.
	Gold *triens* struck at Canterbury.
	Earliest coinage of Kent.
	Coins of Offa of Mercia.
	Penny of Offa and Cynefrith, his queen.
	Gold dinher of Offa with Arabic legend and *Offa Rex*.
	Penny of Alfred with portrait, struck at London (26 gr.).
	Pennies of Henry I., Stephen, Stephen and Matilda, Eustace, son of Stephen, &c., chiefly barbarous.
	Gold penny (?) of Henry III. (1257).
	Pattern groat of Edward II. or III. (1327).
	Florin, half florin, and quarter florin of Edward III. in gold (1344).

THE COLLECTOR SERIES

England . . .	First noble of Edward IV.
	Sovereign, double sovereign, rial and shilling of Henry VII.
	Half George noble of Henry VIII.
	Triple sovereign and pattern 6-angel piece of Edward VI.
	Mezzo-scudo of Philip and Mary, struck for Naples.
	Three-halfpenny and three-farthing pieces of Elizabeth.
	Portcullis series of same (1600–1601).
	Oxford crown of Charles I.
	Fifty-shilling piece in gold of Cromwell.
	Petition and *Reddite* crowns of Charles II.
	Gold and silver touch-pieces from Charles II. to James III. (Pretender), those in silver the rarer.
	Pattern guinea of Anne (1702).
	Pattern guinea of George I. (1727).
English Colonies	Hog-money of James I. for Bermuda.
	Maryland shilling, sixpence, groat, and penny.
	New England uniface shilling, sixpence, and threepence.
	Massachusetts shilling, sixpence, threepence, and twopence (1652–62).
	Silver and copper money struck under Charles II. for Bombay and Madras.
	Carolina and New England halfpence (1694).
	Rosa Americana of George I. (1722–24).
	Rosa Americana pattern twopence of George II. (1733).
Scotland . . .	Any coins which can be found anterior to Alexander I. (1107–24).
	Pennies, halfpence, and farthings of John Baliol and Robert Bruce (1292–1329).
	Gold noble of David II., copied from the English coin.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Scotland . . .	Gold unicorn and half-unicorn of James III. (1486).
	The divisions of the gold *rider* and *St. Andrew* of James IV. (1488).
	The gold *ryal* and *St. Andrew* of James V. (1517).
	The two-third and one-third Bonnet piece of James V. (1539).
	The coins of Mary I. with her portrait.
	The twenty-pound (Scots) piece, hat-piece, and divisions of the unit, all in gold, of James VI.
	The so-called Cruickston dollar (1565).
	The forty-shilling-piece in silver (1582).
	The sword and sceptre piece (1604).
Charles I. . . .	The lower divisions of the gold unit.
James VII. . .	The silver sixty-shilling piece (1688).
William II. (III. of England)	The silver sixty-shilling piece (1699).
	The gold pistole and half pistole for Darien (1701).

Any Scotish billon or copper coins in fine state are more or less rare.

The coins in billon, silver, and gold struck by the sovereigns of England in various parts of France from Henry II. to Henry VIII. constitute a remarkable group, among which are numbered several rarities of the first order, like the gold *mouton*, *chaise*, and *florin* of Edward III., the *guiennois* and other coins of the Black Prince; the gold salute and gros d'argent of Henry V., and many more pieces, some insignificant as works of art, but valuable as historical and numismatic relics. Akerman, in his "Numismatic Manual," 1840, gives a very fair account of this peculiar series, which was very imperfectly known to the earlier antiquaries.

IV

GREEK COINS

THERE is perhaps no series of coins which, at any period of the world's history, has afforded a measure of instruction and entertainment to scholars and students, as well as to collectors, equal to that created and maintained by the money of Ancient Greece, and of the countries subject to Greek influence, in all metals from the seventh century B.C. to the third century A.D. The pleasure and profit arising from the survey and interpretation of this truly immense body of authentic monuments of the religious, social, and political history of the greatest nation of antiquity have been incessant, and prove inexhaustible. No people has ever written its own life so completely, so broadly, so picturesquely as the Hellenes, or in characters so convincing and so imperishable. We are accustomed to speak of Greek and Roman coins as of things intimately allied; but the spirit of the monetary systems of the two countries was essentially different, except when Rome and her Italian neighbours, in the time of the Republic, employed Greek artists and models. Neither in the Archaic currency, based on the *æs*, nor in the so-called Consular or Family Group of coins, is local influence

perceptible; and when we place the regular examples of Roman workmanship side by side with those of republican and Hellenic origin, we have no difficulty in estimating the disparity between the two schools of sentiment, art, and design.

Of all the classes of ancient money which engage the attention of numismatists and amateurs, there is probably none on which they are more apt to fix at the outset, and to which they more frequently revert and remain permanently loyal. In comparison with all other European systems, the Greek excels in its undying interest as a faithful reflection of the religious cults, the social feelings, the popular usages, and the political transactions and vicissitudes of an unique nationality, which once made its influence sensible over a great part of the civilised world, and yet not only could not transmit its peculiar genius to other succeeding communities, but survived sufficiently long to witness the decline of its own glory as a nursery and mistress of the arts. Beyond the services which these precious archives have rendered to other departments of knowledge, we have to consider the obligations under which we lie to their survivorship for our acquaintance, derivable from no other sources, with long dynasties of forgotten rulers and the lost sites of cities formerly populous and powerful.

The agencies which most influentially contributed to the formation of style, and, on the other hand, to the periodical changes and vicissitudes in the character of ancient Greek money, were primarily a deep and widely

diffused religious feeling, varying in its incidence in different localities; and, secondarily, the evils arising from foreign or domestic wars, changes of government, and financial depression. The earliest coins are the most attractive, if for no other reason, because they reflect most vividly and sincerely the daily worship of the simple populations among which they were intended to circulate. It is impossible to overestimate the share which strong religious faith, even to the point of superstitious credulity, had in the making of the Greek people.

Dr. Head divides into five periods the rise, progress, and later stages of Greek numismatic production: (i.) Archaic; (ii.) Transitional; (iii.) Finest Art; (iv.) Later Fine Art; (v.) Decline of Art. This method of distribution is, of course, susceptible of modified treatment and liable to exceptions. The Archaic era Dr. Head places between B.C. 700 and 480; the Transitional, between 480 and 415; the Finest Art, between 415 and 336; the Later Fine Art, between 336 and 280; and the Decline, between 280 and 146. All these figures are necessarily approximate and tentative; the broad feature in the question appears to be, that we have in our hands for study a progressive succession of monuments, which, from the seventh century B.C. to somewhere about the middle of the fourth, afford evidence of a continuous onward movement, culminating in the noble Sicilian coins and medallions of Kymon and other known engravers at Syracuse and elsewhere, who often transferred to their dies masterpieces of sculp-

ture or painting less durable than metal, and that on many accounts the value of the intermediate grades of excellence or improvement is equal to that of the most finished examples by the greatest masters. It is upon the period of decadence, which, when it first commenced, there was no means of arresting, that we cannot refrain from looking with greater sorrow than interest. There was that difference between the First Epoch and the Last that there is between the flow and the ebb of the tide; but here there was no rally, not even among the political inheritors of the soil on which all these examples of skill and refinement saw the light. But in the Greek coinage there is another consideration, of which the collector becomes sensible, and that is the liability to unequal work in the money of the same ruler produced, if not concurrently, at least within a short interval. The disparity of execution often arises from the circumstances under which the particular die was engraved, from the call for an issue of money on a sudden emergency in a distant province, or in the absence of skilled operatives; and in many of the Greek series we are able to place side by side two tetradrachms, or other pieces of contemporary date, where the type is identical and the workmanship perceptibly differs. The same phenomenon occurs in the English and French coinages; and that is more usually due to the employment of a provincial artist, as in the case of the Oxford twenty-shilling piece of inferior style, and in some of the copper currency of Henry III. and IV. of France.

The original conception of coined money arose among a people whose commercial prosperity needed such facilities for exchange with distant countries, and who possessed the means, in rich gold-mines, of establishing a metallic medium at once intelligible and convenient. The introduction of the coinage, which is usually regarded as the basis of that of the Greeks, has to be sought for outside the limits of Hellas and on another continent; and this circumstance involves the arrangement of any book devoted to a survey of the subject rather complicated and perplexing. As the *Historia Numorum* is the standard work of reference, it was judged best to obey the initiative or precedent there given; but the principle followed is not perfectly clear or satisfactory, as Dr. Head not only places Lydia near the conclusion of his volume, but commences it with the Greek and Roman settlements in Western Europe. The story of the invention of money by the Lydians of the seventh century B.C. has been told often enough to have become familiar to all. Whether a specimen of the maiden mint exists we do not know. It would be very difficult to determine the precise age of such a piece; but here was the Asiatic birthplace of the Greek numismatic movement, which owed nothing to its foreign founders save the happy idea of converting to practical purposes the mineral resources of Lydia. A very considerable interval must have elapsed—two centuries or upward—before the Greeks began to acquire the faculty of communicating to lumps or discs of metal their impressions of natural objects;

and the gold ingots of Lampsacus, attributed to the fifth century B.C., may be the most ancient memorials in existence of the bold and free treatment which we see at length carried to such perfection during the best period of Art.

The portraiture on Greek coins is undoubtedly, as a rule, less realistic than that on Roman money; and it may be true that the lineaments found on urban or municipal pieces were intended to personify the tutelary genius of the locality. But at the same time numerous are the instances where the likeness stamped on an ancient Greek coin carries with it a conviction that it is neither more nor less than an idealised transcript of the face of the sovereign in whose name the money was struck. Numismatists are very steadfast in their adherence to the contrary view; but it seems to us one of those points which are eminently open to discussion, and which may be settled hereafter on a new footing. The utmost which strikes us as capable of being urged in support of the existing theory is that the early engraver aimed at investing the personage whom it was his business to portray with a kind of divine *afflatus* calculated to impress the popular fancy. With the exception of certain cases where the portrait on a Greek coin is almost obviously a *vera effigies*, as in the Syrian, Egyptian, Bactrian, and some of the Macedonian series, the heads must be accepted, we think, as flattering resemblances of the rulers themselves, as we see in the Roman imperial currency, and in that, coming much later down, of Napoléon I. But we have modern

analogy on our side to assist in shewing that even allegorical and emblematical figures on a coinage are generally traceable to an actual individual, and were adopted by the artists as the objects nearest at hand. The portraits on the staters and tetradrachms of Philip of Macedon and on the silver money of his son Alexander the Great possess a verisimilitude which is very persuasive, and the prevailing character of the head on the more or less coeval tetradrachms of Alexander strike us as far more likely to have resembled the king than that on the posthumous Æsillas piece.

Of the metals employed by Greek engravers, electrum, silver, and bronze were the most usual. The two latter were at all times the most widely diffused; the electrum money was restricted to particular districts where this natural amalgam of gold and silver, prized as harder than the more precious ore for these purposes, was found. Gold was, in a comparative sense, sparingly used; and the Greek series in that metal bears a very small proportion to those in the other three mineral substances. Modern discovery has added a good deal to our knowledge of the electrum coinages of Cyzicus and other localities. For gold, subsequently to the Archaic period, we have to look to Attica, Macedonia, Thessaly, Epirus, Thrace, Sicily, and Egypt; and the Athenian stater and its divisions are among the rarities and problems of Greek numismatics, since very few genuine specimens are extant, although the currency is supposed to have had a duration of about half a century (B.C. 394–350).

In the settlement of the order of sequence the principle followed by Dr. Head has been mainly adhered to; it appears to be to a large extent that approved by Ecklel; but the present writer would have preferred to change the relative positions assigned in the *Historia Numorum* to Greece and some of its European colonies, and to Lydia and a few other Asiatic centres belonging to the First Epoch. The title of Britain to admittance into this section solely rests on the imitation by its moneyers of the Macedonian stater in a progressively degraded form.

It will be sufficient to glance at the *Historia Numorum* to make it immediately clear that what here follows is merely a general sketch, sufficient to prepare any one to estimate or gauge the extent and nature of the task which he may have before him either as a collector or as a student. Perhaps Dr. Head has passed over rather too lightly the bronze coins, which constitute in a high state of preservation at once a beautiful and an inexpensive branch of study or pursuit, and may be confidently recommended to amateurs on these grounds. But purity of condition is here of the first importance.

Hispania.—(i.) Greek coinage, 4th–3rd century B.C. *Mints:* Emporiæ, Rhoda, Gades, Ebusus. *Types:* imitations of the archaic Phocæan drachma, with the divisions into thirds, sixths, twelfths, and twenty-fourths, and various emblems or symbols: a cock, a cuttlefish, a bull's head, &c. The coins of Rhoda have a rose, those of Gades or Cadiz the head of the Tyrian Herakles, and the Ebusus series Kabeiros with a hammer

and a serpent. The last are not later than B.C. 217, when the Baleares became Roman. (ii.) Hispano-Carthaginian coinage, 234–10 B.C. (iii.) Romano-Iberian and Latin coinages, B.C. 225–130: (1) money struck at Emporiæ and other places in Hispania Citerior and Ulterior, in the names of certain tribes which occupied the surrounding territory, with Iberian inscriptions; (2) money struck under Roman authority (*victoriati*, *denarii*, divisions of the reduced *æs*, &c.), in silver and bronze with Iberian or Latin legends. (iv.) Coins with Latin legends, B.C. 133–80. (v.) Coins with bilingual legends, Latin and Iberian, B.C. 80–72. (vi.) Latin or Roman coins, B.C. 49 to A.D. 41.

GALLIA.—Here, as indeed in Hispania, we have to study two distinct classes of coinage: (1) that of foreign colonists on the seaboard; (2) that of the Gauls themselves. The most ancient settlement was that about B.C. 600 at Marseilles by Phocæans, who appear to have struck for their use a drachma and its divisions of archaic type, first known from the *trouvaille d'Auriol* (1867), and perhaps existing for us only in remains of the fifth century B.C. These coins in their types and legends refer to the worship of Apollo and Artemis. A drachma of fine work, attributed to the fourth century, has the head of Artemis on obverse, and on reverse a lion with *Massa* in Greek characters; this beautiful piece was soon imitated in a degraded style. During the Roman period the drachma was adjusted to the weight of the *victoriatus*, introduced into Spain by the conquerors; and there are bronze coins of this time

with the heads of Apollo or Pallas. (ii.) The civil currency having, as it is thought, ceased, and the Marseilles and other mints closed, about B.C. 50, the coins circulating in the four usual divisions of Gaul thenceforward to the Merovingian era were either the Roman money or the barbarous imitations of it side by side with those of the Greek stater of Macedon and other ancient models, which may be referred back to the third century B.C., and survive in large numbers in various metals, with types seldom intelligible or (except by conjecture) capable of localisation. This description of currency extended over the whole of Gaul and Belgium and parts of Britain and Spain.

BRITANNIA. — This section concerns Greek numismatics, as we have just said, no further than the copies of the Macedonian stater or degraded imitations of Gaulish reproductions of it. We have offered a few remarks on this subject under another head, to which the ancient money of Britain may perhaps be more properly referred.

ITALIA.—Of the coins of Græco-Italian origin we have those in gold and silver (the latter often uniface) of *Etruria*, which sometimes bear marks of value, and appear to have followed the decimal system, and in bronze. The gold is of two standards and the silver of three, both more or less coexistent and local, those of the Euboïc-Syracusan one being usually uniface. The types are numerous and varied: *obverse*, head of Hermes, Gorgon's head, seahorse, &c.; *reverse*, a wheel, circle, crescent, sphynx, &c. The bronze series is large, inte-

resting, and, on the whole, beautiful; it is of two classes—the cast pieces, of larger size and thick fabric, and the struck pieces, of later date. The types are numerous, and often resemble those on the coins in the superior metals; and all possess a strong interest in connection with the obscure cults of this region.

The other leading divisions are :—

Umbria.—The coinage is wholly of bronze, and largely consists at first of the Roman *æs*. Some of the money is almond-shaped or oblong, and it is chiefly cast. The chief centres were Ariminum (Rimini), Iguvium (Gubbio), and Tuder (Todi).

Picenum.—Chief centres: Ancona, Ascoli, Fermo, and Hadria. The first place, owing its name to its situation at a bend of the coast—whence on its coins we get a bent arm—was an important depôt for Illyrian trade and the seat of a temple of Aphrodite. It was of Syracusan origin. The known coins of this region seem to be chiefly Roman of the third century B.C. and later.

Vestini.—Alliance-coins with Rome, B.C. 301–268. Imitations of the money of Umbria and Picenum.

Latium.—The cast Roman *æs* and its divisions, and struck coins of various towns, 4th–3rd century B.C. Some of those of Cora have the Campanian bull crowned, and of Signia the head of Silenos and a boar's head.

Samnium.—No money prior to the Roman coinage about the third century B.C. The district was long held by village communities, which may be supposed to have employed the currencies of their neighbours.

Frentani.—Money of the third century B.C. in retro-

grade Oscan characters. Of Larinum we have bronze money only, third century B.C., struck coins of the uncial reduction of the *as*.

CAMPANIA.—A province, containing many important coin-yielding centres, and essentially Greek in the character of its money. The latter is chiefly in silver and bronze; the former was superseded about 268 B.C. by the Roman currency (*denarius*); the latter remained in use much later. Of some places silver only is known, of others bronze only. It is to this region and to the period of the war with Hannibal, about B.C. 210, that the series of Romano-Campanian gold coins, the earliest money in that metal struck under Roman authority, is ascribable. Many singularly beautiful types belong to Campania, including those of Neapolis with the anthropokephalous bull common to the coins of this district. Some of the pieces with Oscan legends are perhaps to be referred hither. The worship of Dionysos was more or less widely diffused through Campania, sometimes in conjunction with a female divinity.

APULIA.—The earliest coins are supposed to be those of Tarentum, before Apulia acquired its own monetary system. The types resemble those of Campania; they are of silver and bronze, the latter both cast and struck. The coin-centres were numerous, and include Neapolis Peucetiæ, the modern Polignano, a town whose ancient history is exclusively derived from its coins, of which there have been many finds.

CALABRIA.—This district included Tarentum and Brundusium (Brindisi); the money of the former, com-

mencing with the sixth century B.C., is at first of archaic type and of incuse uniface fabric, but attained great excellence and beauty. The coins from the outset exhibit on *obverse* Taras on a dolphin, and some examples present the mythical founder, and son of Neptune, on both sides, variously posed. In the fourth century we find gold first struck; but silver was the prevailing metal. The bronze is late.

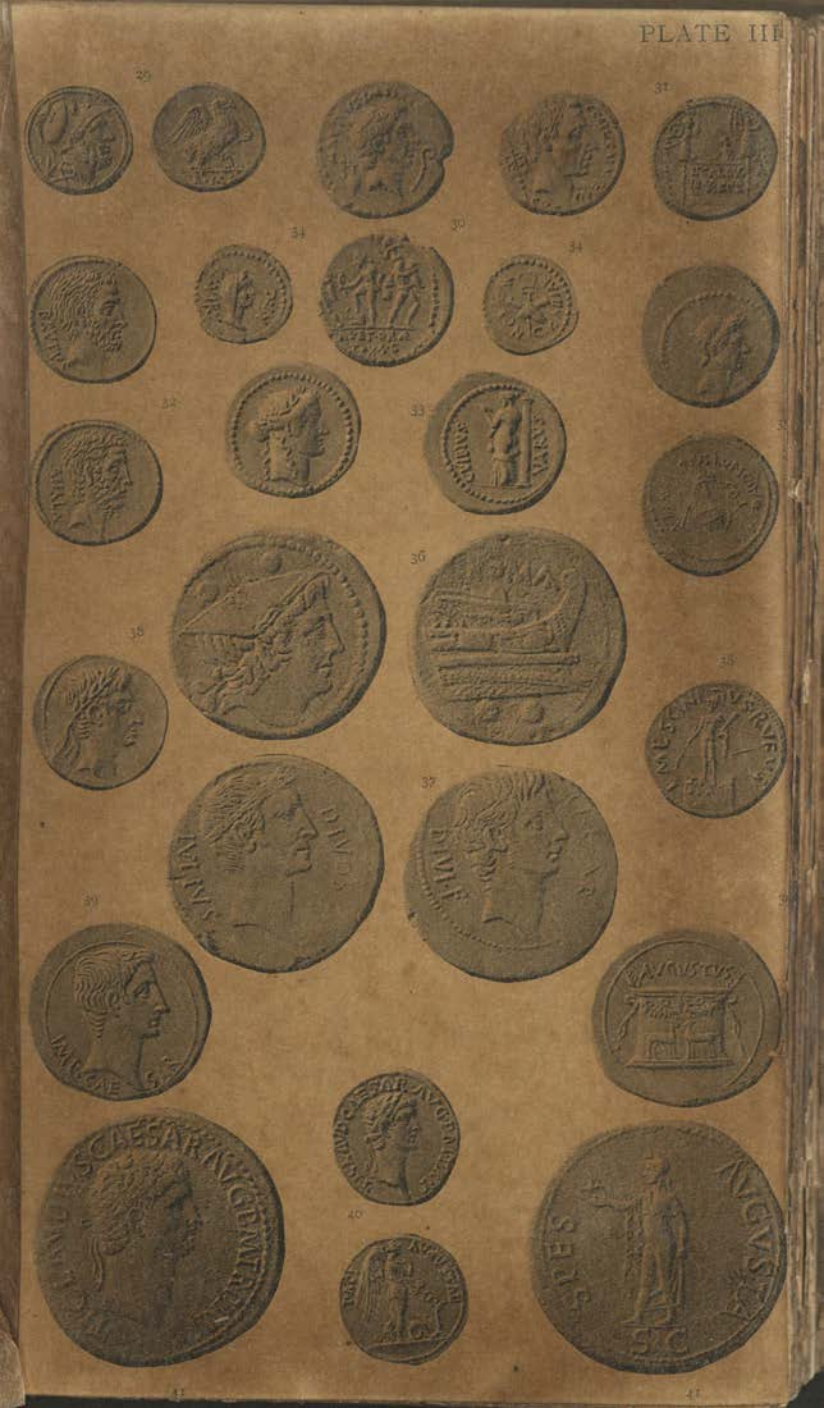
SICILIA.—At first this island possessed coins of an Italian type, introduced by the settlers from the mainland; but, as the Greeks established themselves here, the style of the money became by degrees Hellenised, and acquired in course of time an unsurpassed excellence and celebrity, the cities which arose, both along the coast and inland, emulating each other in the beauty of their numismatic products and the choice of the most skilful engravers, of whom in several cases the names are preserved. Dr. Head divides the monetary annals into eight epochs, which embrace those of archaic art and of decline under the Roman authority. The Sicilian medallion, which was, in fact, the ten-drachma piece, is well known; the agonistic type of the reverse is common to the tetradrachm and didrachm, and probably does not allude to any specific event; the *triquetra*, which was copied on the modern currency of the Two Sicilies, and on that of the Isle of Man, was first introduced under Agathocles (B.C. 317–289), by whom it is supposed to have been intended as a token of his sovereignty over the whole island. The most remarkable coins in this series are those of Agri-

m, Camarina, Catana, Gela, Leontini, Naxos, rmos, and Syracuse. Many varieties of the Syra- dekadrachm exist, and likewise many counterfeits.

CEDON.—This ancient kingdom appears to have at one time under tribal and separate governments, developed into coin-producing centres, in some es of considerable importance and volume. The onian coinage, which comprises, on more than one at, some of the most interesting remains of this is now divided by the highest authority into districts or periods:—1. *The Pangæan District;* *e Emathian District;* 3. *the Bisaltian District;* *halcidice;* 5. *the Strymonian and Botticean Dis- ts;* 6. *the Regal Period;* 7. *the Kings of Pæonia;* *Macedon under the Romans.* We have in the present compass altogether a fine body of numismatic examples commencing with the bold archaic style of the sixth century B.C., and with the productions of the rich mineral country round Mount Pangæum, where the money illustrates the cults of Dionysos and Silenos. The standards were successively the Phocaic, Babylonian, and Phœnician. The currency of the Orrescii comprised the silver octadrachm. The money of the Bisaltæ is of special importance, because it formed the type employed by the earliest regal moneyers under Alexander I. When Xerxes was in this neighbourhood, during his invasion of Greece, the Odomanti were working the gold and silver mines; and it is worth noting that the camels of the king of Persia were attacked by lions, which at that time abounded in this part of

Greece. The lion is a frequent Pangæan type, tog with the peculiar kind of bull also at that epoch be ing here. Associated with the Strymonian divisi the beautiful coins of Amphipolis.

The original capital of Macedon under its king Ægæ, of which some of the latest may have be regal origin; but the earliest piece directly ident with a ruler is of Bisaltian pattern and style the name of Alexander I. (B.C. 498–54) substi for the older legend. Only a silver octadrach Phœnician standard is thus inscribed; and th great obscurity as to the attribution of coins, ev succeeding sovereigns, from the absence of names. course the greatest share of interest centres round common and copious coinages of Philip II. and h son Alexander III. (B.C. 359–23), of whom the former introduced a species of bimetallism, and greatly improved the style of the gold and silver money, substituting the celebrated gold stater for the Persian *daric* previously in use. Alexander resumed the principle of a single standard, owing to the depreciation of gold by the opening of the mines at Philippi by his father, and their vast yield of ore. The money struck by Alexander alone constitutes a study, and it is divisible into two classes: that struck in his lifetime; that struck after his death, or in imitation of his types, both in silver and in gold. But the entire regal series commands attention from the portraits which it furnishes down to the Æsillas tetradrachm with one said to be a likeness of Alexander himself. The tetradrachm of



Antigonus Gonatas, sometimes ascribed to Doson, appears to refer, from the type of the reverse, to the naval victory obtained by him over the Egyptian fleet off Cos in B.C. 265. The Roman coinage for Macedon usually bears the word *Leg*, to indicate that it was struck by the authority of the Roman Legatus or deputy; but the most valuable relic of this class is the gold stater of the Roman general T. Quinctius Flamininus, assigned to the period following the battle of Cynoscephalæ (B.C. 196–90), and of which the exact history is unknewn.

The coins of Pæonia, which begin with those of Lycceius (B.C. 359), after the revolt of the Pæonians, at the death of Perdiccas III., from the Macedonian yoke, form a short series spreading over about sixty years, and composed of silver tetradrachms of reduced module, didrachms, drachms, and tetraboli.

Lucania.—This region, peopled by colonists from Tarentum, Thurium, Samnium, &c., comprised the very important and prolific mints of Metapontum, Poseidonia, Pæstum, Sybaris, and Thurium. At first it employed the money of other cities not originally included in its boundaries, Metapontum, Sybaris, and Poseidonia among them; but eventually, down to the Roman time, about 210 B.C., the various towns produced a remarkably fine series of coins, chiefly silver, ranging from the archaic uniface incuse type to the 10-drachma piece. A wolf's head found in the field on some of the reverses is significant of the name of the locality. The ear of corn which accompanies the coins of

Metapontum symbolises the worship of Ceres or Demeter. The head of Herakles (sometimes with a ram's horn and ear) on those of Heraklea has a similar import. On some of the money of Metapontum the river Acheloiis occurs in the form of a nude man holding a patera and a reed. A large assortment of beautiful and interesting examples is to be found in this series. Of the archaic incuse coins the authenticity should be assured. The silver pieces of Sybaris which we possess seem to belong to a coinage of very short duration (B.C. 453–451); they are all incuse.

BRUTTII.—This was another region where the incuse uniface pattern at first prevailed; it included the coinage of Croton, Caulonia, Rhegium, and Western Locri. No silver was coined after the submission to Rome, B.C. 272, and the bronze ceased about B.C. 203. Certain silver coins of Rhegium equivalent to the Sicilian *litra* were intended exclusively for the commerce with that island. There must have been an enormous output of currency between the commencement, about B.C. 550, and the final close of monetary rights in B.C. 89. On the coins of Croton alone we may read many instructive lessons respecting the religious worship and beliefs current there in remote times among the disciples of Pythagoras. There are others of Rhegium with a mule-car and a hare, commemorative of an Olympian victory gained with the former by Anaxilas, and of the worship of Pan under the symbol of a hare. As regards the seated bearded figure on some of the money of this place, it certainly appears most

reasonable to agree with Dr. Head in assuming it to represent a rural divinity, and the dog, duck, or cow, which generally accompany it, as cognate adjuncts. We see among the coins of Terina some of the finest specimens of Greek art. Herakles already presents himself here as elsewhere on the money as an apotheosis, whence it may be inferred, perhaps, that at the very dawn of history his personality and *patria* had faded into an obscure tradition, and so with other pieces of Hellenic folk-lore. It seems clear from the plural genitive form on the coins that Bruttii, rather than Bruttium, is the correct designation.

THRACE.—This region was composed of the towns on the southern coast, the Thracian Chersonesos, the Islands of Thrace, the European coast of the Propontis, the Danubian Provinces, the Regal Series, the Inland Settlements, the Scythian dynasts. The most important places were Ænus, Maroneia, Abdera, Thasos (the seat of rich gold mines), Byzantium, Panticapæum. The worships of Dionysos, Hera, Apollo, Herakles, and Artemis Tauropolos are traceable in the coins. Not in a technical, but in a human sense, Tomi, between Istrus and Callatia, commands our respect as the place of exile of the poet Ovid, and of his death. The regal series extends from the fifth to the first century B.C.; but the best period is that of Lysimachus (323–281), of whom there are coins in gold and silver of good style, and existing both in contemporary or early imitations, and the former (the gold stater) frequently of doubtful authenticity. The Greek currency of Byzan-

tium is common in silver, and there seem to have been alliance-coins between Byzantium and Chalcedon in B.C. 270, but we have none of the iron money mentioned by Aristophanes. Of the monetary productions of the Roman epoch, and of the Græco-Scythian series, there are plentiful examples in silver and bronze; those belonging to Odessus are of good style and fabric. Gold was sparingly used, and its survival in a stater of Panticapæum testifies, perhaps, to the commercial prosperity of the ancient Kertch in the fourth century B.C. A common colonial type in the Chersonesos is that with Silenos carrying a wine-skin over his shoulder.

THESSALY.—This was a country, where Poseidon was universally revered as the author of the miracle to which it owed its existence as dry land, and in whose honour games, or *taureia*, where the youth displayed their skill in seizing wild bulls by the horns and bringing them to earth, were formerly held; this legend, and the grazing horse, significant of the rich pastures of the Thessalian plains, present themselves on the coins, of which some are of very fine work. Dr. Head classifies the money under three periods. About B.C. 480–344, when the Thessalian autonomy ceased for a time, and the Macedonian currency took its place; B.C. 302–286, a temporary autonomous coinage of certain cities, after the visit to Thessaly of Demetrius Poliorcetes; B.C. 196–146, a federal coinage, which terminated only on the reduction of Thessaly to a Roman province. The chief cities were Crannon, Herakleia (where Herakles was worshipped), Pharsalos, Pheræ, and Larissa. The

Œtæi inhabited the mountain where Herakles is said to have died. The island of Peparethus was once called Euoinos, in allusion to the excellence of its wines. Besides Poseidon and Herakles, Athena, Apollo, Asklepios, and Achilles occur on the Thessalian money at various epochs down to Roman times. The head on the drachma figured at p. 253 of Head has been supposed to be a portrait of the hetaira Lamia, mistress of Demetrius Poliorcetes. Attention should be paid to the rich variety of subjects on the archaic currency of this place, and the interesting treatment of the reverses, with the eponymous nymph Larissa holding up a mirror, playing at ball, fastening her sandal, &c.

Illyria.—The coinage is constituted of three classes: civic, regal, and that of the islands. It extends from the fourth to the first century B.C. The chief places were Apollonia and Dyrrhachium (Durazzo). Some of the money is of Macedonian type, that Power having the ascendency here from about 211 to 196 B.C. The regal series is very short and unimportant. Of the Illyric islands, Pharos is the best known, and produced coins from the fourth to the second century B.C. The Illyrio-Epirote series is similarly a brief one, chiefly arising from the existence of silver mines at Damastium, whose currency, with its mineral wealth, is recorded by Strabo.

Epiros.—The Epirote coinage forms three classes: the money struck at Ambracia in silver, and in bronze at Cassope and elsewhere, before 295 B.C.; (ii.) that of the short regal period, 295–72; (iii.) that of the Republic.

The prevailing types are the veiled head of Dione and the conical pillar of Apollo of Ambracia, the jugate heads of Zeus and Dione, the former generally with the oak-wreath, significant of the oak of Dodona, or the head of Zeus alone. The one piece with *Pthias* and the veiled head of Pthia is supposed to represent the mother of Pyrrhus, who struck money not only at Locri in Bruttium and Syracuse, but in Southern Italy. There are no coins subsequent to B.C. 168, except some in bronze, attributed to the priest of the temple of Zeus at Dodona, with the heads of Zeus and Artemis on either side.

CORCYRA.—A wealthy commercial city, which obtained its independence in the sixth century B.C., and produced a long series of autonomous coinage of silver and bronze down to Roman imperial times. The uniform archaic type is a cow suckling a calf with incuse reverse in compartments, inscribed with devices. The silver stater of Corinthian weight was subsequently reinforced by the drachma, the half and quarter drachma, the victoriatus, the half victoriatus, and the obol. The standard of the money declined in course of time, and about B.C. 300 the silver stater of reduced weight was withdrawn. The types of many of the bronze coins suggest the Dionysiac cult. In B.C. 338 Corcyra had fallen into Macedonian hands, but this did not affect the currency further than the insertion of *Kor*, as an indication that the money, which had become in the Corinthian cities of a uniform standard, belonged

here. The Roman series comes down to Caracalla, and appears to have been also autonomous.

Acarnania.—As far back as the fifth century B.C. this country formed itself into a confederacy, with Stratos on the Acheloüs as its capital, and there are coins in silver (Corinthian staters) and bronze. Stratos, Leucas, and Thyrreium were the principal centres and mints. The heads of Zeus, Apollo, Pallas, Bellerophon, and the personified Acheloüs occur on the money. The Romans partly broke up the union by severing Leucas from it in B.C. 167; and the later coinage bears the names of magistrates or strategoi. It is noticeable that the bronze currency of Leucas about B.C. 300 is often struck over pieces of Philip of Macedon. There was probably no coinage after the second century B.C.

Ætolia.—The earliest Ætolian money appears to be of a federal cast, and to refer to the period from the third to the second century B.C., when Ætolia formed itself into a League to resist first the Macedonians, and subsequently the Gauls. The seated figure on the reverse type of the earliest tetradrachms represents Ætolia armed, with military trophies, and is supposed to have been copied from the statue at Delphi, placed there in grateful memory of the victories over the invaders. There is a Gaulish trumpet at the feet of the heroine, who sits on a pile of Macedonian and Gaulish shields mingled together. There are a few bronze coins with Ætolian types belonging to cities outside the League, but in alliance with it.

Locris (Eastern), or *Locri Opuntii*.—It is to be

suspected that the archaic money of this region has been to a large extent lost, or has yet to be recovered. The oldest at present known belongs to Thronium, and is a silver obolos with a bearded head on the obverse and an incuse reverse. The coinage of the best period of the Locri, whose capital town or city was Opus, is between B.C. 400 and B.C. 338, the date of the battle of Chæroneia, when the exclusive monetary rights were withdrawn by Philip of Macedon from the capital and transferred to Locris *in genere*. The inscription on the money (silver staters and hemidrachms) was changed from *Opuntion* to *Locron*. The Locrian coinage was suspended under Macedonian rule, and under that of Rome we have coins only of the two short reigns of Galba and Otho. The Locri Ozolæ appear to have belonged to the Ætolian League. Of Amphissa and Œantheia there are coins of the second century B.C.

Phocis.—The coinage commences about the middle of the sixth century B.C., and is of federal character, emanating from a confederation of two-and-twenty cities, whose Amphictyonic folk-moot or Synedrion assembled near Daulis in a building known as the *Phokikon*. We have coins of various character from the middle of the sixth to the middle of the second century B.C. The principal cities were Daulis and Delphi. The types of the bull's head and of the boar with the head of Artemis are symbolical of ancient worships (see Head, p. 287). Of Delphi there are very ancient coins in silver with two rams' heads and two dolphins on obverse, and on reverse an incuse square cantonned with dolphins,

allusively to the name of the place, as well as, perhaps, the worship of the Delphian Apollo. Between B.C. 357 and 346 money of a different character was struck as the result of the war concluded in the last-named year; and the silver staters, drachms, and diobols may be referred to the year (346) of the meeting of the Synedrion and the Pythian games, the reverses bearing *Amphictyonon*. From this date to the reign of the Emperor Hadrian the coinage of Delphi was suspended, but it was restored under that prince and the Antonines. It is interesting to recollect that Plutarch the historian was a member of the Amphictyonic council and priest of the temple of Apollo at Chæroneia. Archaic coins are known of other towns of Phocis—Lilæa and Neon. The figure on one of Elateia of the second century B.C. is identified with the bronze statue of Athena mentioned by Pausanias.

Bœotia.—Like Phocis, this State at a very early period of its numismatic history resorted to federalism. The most ancient examples of currency, however, are to be found among the series struck at Thebes in the sixth century B.C. on an Æginetic model, with the type of the Bœotian shield, a religious emblem connected with the dedication of golden ones, probably to Athena, in the Acropolis at Coroneia, the place of assembly for the Bœotian League. The Theban coinage, at first primitive in fabric and style and uninscribed, acquired an artistic character in the succeeding century, when the rude incuse reverses were superseded by a more elegant and attractive pattern, and to this era the rare gold

coinage belongs. Other important coin-yielding centres were Tanagra on the Asopus; Coroneia, just mentioned; Haliartos, celebrated as the seat of a temple of Neptune (who is represented on its money) and as a second meeting-place of the Amphictyonic council; Orchomenos, a very early commercial city in relations with Ægina, and Pharæ. Athena and Poseidon seem to have been the divinities chiefly revered throughout the Bœotian confederacy; but there are also vestiges of the cults of Dionysos, Eros, Aphrodite, and Herakles. After the destruction of Thebes in B.C. 335 and the suspension of autonomy, the periods of prosperity and numismatic production were intermittent and limited; the most glorious interval of political restoration was that associated with the names of Pelopidas and Epaminondas (B.C. 379–338). The Roman imperial coinage for Bœotia is only of three reigns (Galba, Hadrian, Domitian); but long prior to this period (B.C. 146) the financial condition of Greece had become very unsettled, and here money of necessity appeared in the form of bronze coins made to pass current for silver values. A special group of Theban coinage for Bœotia was that struck under Macedonian authority, with the type of Alexander the Great and the Bœotian shield as a subsidiary emblem on reverse (B.C. 288–244). But there can be no doubt that the most interesting epoch is that which immediately followed the archaic one.

EUBŒA.—The oldest coinage of this island is assignable to the seventh century B.C. and to the town of Chalcis. The other principal places were Carystos, Cyme, Eretria,

and Histiæa. Of Chalcis the first money consisted of staters in electrum and the tetradrachm and its divisions in silver. That of Eretria is remarkable for the type of the Gorgon's head and the irregularity of the module; but subsequently to the wars with Persia the fabric and type underwent a change. From 336 to 197 B.C. there was no autonomous currency, but it revived after the liberation of Greece by Flamininus. The Histiæan money carries on it the recollection of the fertility of the vines of the district. The coinage of Eubœa may be divided into four periods: first autonomous period (including archaic pieces); Macedonian period; second autonomous period; Roman imperial period—the whole extending over about five centuries (B.C. 700–146).

Attica.—The most ancient money current in Attica is thought to have been that of Ægina, and this heavy coinage was probably superseded in the time of Solon by one of lighter weight, afterward known as the Attic or Euboic standard, and bearing the proportion of 73 to 100. But the Athenians seem to have had a commercial as well as a current standard, and the former, when the Euboic weight was introduced, was still maintained for trading purposes, the mina being money of account and = 138 drachmas. The types of the coinage varied little, but the fabric and style, from being extremely barbarous and primitive, grew more refined and artistic. The denominations were unusually numerous after the earliest period, and comprised all varieties of size and value in silver and bronze, from

the dekadrachm to the lepton. The gold money is remarkably scanty, and does not begin till the fourth century B.C. There are the stater, the drachma, the triobol, the ekte, and the hemiekton, of all of which the examples offered in commerce are frequently spurious. Nearly the whole of the silver currency down to about A.D. 220, when a new type was introduced with improved methods of coinage, is negligently executed and struck; and it is remarkable that the finest numismatic period is that when Athens had ceased to exercise preponderant influence in Greece. The bronze money consisted of the *kalkous*, the *kolluboi*, and the *lepton*. Four *kolluboi* or seven *lepta* were = one *kalkous*, and eight *kalkoi* were = one *obol*.

Of the Demi of Attica, Eleusis alone struck autonomous coins, and for a brief term (350–320 B.C.); here was the temple of Triptolemos, whose name was associated with the Eleusinian Mysteries, and the ephemeral coinage refers to this cult. So at Oropos and Salamis, Amphiaraos and Ajax had an oracle and statue and a temple respectively. For a minute classification of the later money of Attica we must refer to the *Historia Numorum*. There are types belonging to the Roman period, as elsewhere.

Megaris.—This minor state contained the townships of Megara, Ægosthena, and Pagæ, on the Corinthian Gulf. Megara was a prosperous place before the Macedonian conquest in B.C. 338. The best numismatic period appears to have been from 307 to 243 B.C., when Megara joined the Achæan League; the types per-

petuate the worship of Apollo, the reputed builder of the original walls of the city; and the obelisk observed on some of them is identified with the stone which was termed Apollo Karinos. In honour of this divinity the lesser Pythian games were celebrated here.

Of all three places imperial coins are known, but the reverses preserve their Hellenic spirit and complexion.

Ægina.—This island is claimed as the cradle of ancient European coinage, its famous *tortoises* dating back to the seventh century B.C.; but perhaps they are not much anterior to the money of Chalcis and a few other points within the Greek frontier. The most remote in date may be those of heavy Phœnician standard, of which a find of four specimens occurred at Thera in Crete in 1821. The electrum stater of the archaic tortoise type in the French national collection may be the oldest piece belonging to this locality in existence, and it is described as unique. Dr. Head distributes the coinage into eight periods, inclusively of the Roman; and the last is in this case the only one, singularly enough, where the treatment exhibits any variety, the more natural delineation of the sea or land tortoise having previously been the chief mark of progress. The earlier coins are uninscribed; in the inner reverses of those of the fifth century certain letters occur on either side. The bronze money begins in the first quarter of the same century.

Corinthia.—The numismatic archæology of Corinth is intimately associated with the myth of Bellerophon and Pegasos, and the winged steed forms the standard

type of its fine coinage, appearing even on pieces of archaic fabric and pattern, and accompanied on the later currency by the helmeted head of Athena, the goddess under whose auspices Bellerophon achieved his exploit. The operations of the mint seem to have continued undisturbed through the Macedonian conquest in 338 B.C. till Corinth joined the Achæan League in 243. From this time its output of autonomous money was intermittent and limited, and in 146 it was destroyed by the Romans. After its restoration in 46 by Cæsar, the city produced a rich volume of bronze coins, with a large assortment of mythological types, well deserving of study and attention. In this series we meet with one of the rare coins with the name and portrait of Julia, daughter of Augustus.

PELOPONESOS.—The coinage of this extensive geographical area long consisted of the money of other states—Corinth, Ægina, and Arcadia. The region embraced the important districts of Achaia, Messenia, Laconia, Argolis, and Arcadia, and the three influential and prolific coin-centres Elis, Sicyon, and Argos, as well as those other well-known political organisations, the Achæan and Arcadian Leagues. Out of all these sources sprang an immense body of currency, almost exclusively silver and bronze, particularly the beautiful work of Elis and the interesting remains of the Ionian Isles, which are powerfully marked by traces of ancient cults.

The coinage of Lacedæmon, so far as we are at present aware, commences with the third century B.C., none of the legendary iron money being known, and

to this period is referable a curious tetradrachm of good Greek workmanship on obverse, but with a roughly-executed archaic reverse, representing the Apollo of Amycle, helmeted and armed, with a goat at his side; this coin may belong to Areus, king of Sparta, B.C. 310–266. The bronze money of Lacedæmon is plentiful, and extends over the whole period. The Spartans joined the Achæan League in 192 B.C.

The coins of Argos, which cover the period from the sixth to the second century, are in the best time (fourth century) remarkable for their beauty of execution and their mythological eloquence. The stephanos on the head of Hera is taken to be a recollection of the head-dress on her statue by Polycleitus. Besides Argos itself, there were other coin-centres, particularly Cleonæ, Epidaurus, and Tiryns, the last associated with the modern discoveries of Schliemann, and Epidaurus made interesting by the identification of its coinage with the statue by Thrasymedes of Paros of Asklepios, who was worshipped here. Of Tiryns there are coins of the fourth century, which refute the ordinary statement that it was not inhabited after its destruction in B.C. 468. The Roman currency of Argolis retains its Hellenic character.

Of ARCADIA we possess a federal coinage from the middle of the sixth to the latter part of the following century. The seats of mintage were probably more or less numerous. As elsewhere, some of the archaic money was doubtless struck within the sanctuary of Zeus on Mount Lycæum on the occasion of the annual games

(Lycæa), which brought the whole community or their representatives once a year thither; but other mints were Heræa in Western Arcadia, and, later on, Megalopolis. The cults in vogue among the Arcadians were those of Zeus and Pan, of whom both had their shrines on Mount Lycæum. Within this district lay several ancient and important townships or communities, including Heræa and Megalopolis above mentioned (the former rising into notice after the battle of Leuctra in 371), Mantineia, Orchomenos, and Stymphalos. Almost all these archaic centres are rich in mythological associations, and other coins are similarly valuable in rectifying historical views. Stymphalos was the fabulous land of the anthropophagous birds destroyed by Herakles. Heræa is represented as having been in primitive times a confederation of village communities. The bear appears on the early money of Mantineia, allusively to the legend of Kallisto; that of Pheneus forms a long series, and the type of the feeding horse recalls the episode of Odysseus pasturing his mares in this country. Arcadia joined the Achæan League B.C. 243, and there are Roman imperial coins with Greek reverse types. It is to be noted that the Arcadia and Pan of geography and mythology do not accord with the common poetical conception, for the climate of this part of Northern Greece was ill-suited to pastoral and *al fresco* life, while the Pan of popular belief and the Pan of song are two very different personages.

CRETE.—The numismatic records of this island are replete with evidences of the ancient worship of Zeus,

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who was supposed to have been born on Mount Ida. Hera was worshipped at Cnossus and elsewhere in this locality. Another prominent cult was that of Europa, the mother by Zeus of Minos, and apparently the heroine of a myth of Phœnician origin. Crete was also the seat of the fable of Talos, the man of brass, who made the circuit of the island thrice daily, and hurled stones at vessels attempting to land, and of the dog who guarded the youthful Zeus, both the work of Hephæstos. The coinage of Crete is chiefly of civic origin, and in silver and bronze; it is of two standards —the Æginetic and the Attic, the latter proceeding from an alliance between the Cretans, Athenians, and others against Macedon about B.C. 200. The principal towns were Cnossus, Cydonia, Gortyna (whose coins perpetuate the fable of Europa), Lyttus, Elyrus, Phæstus, Phalasarna, Polyrhenium, Præsus, and Sybrita. Unusual obscurity hangs over the topographical and political history of this island, and it is possible that there may have been a monetary system anterior to any now identifiable. Gortyna seems to have been an important mint in the fifth century, and a silver stater presents on reverse the almost unique feature conveyed in the words *Gortunos to paima*. The famous Labyrinth of Minos is a common reverse type on the coins of Cnossus, sometimes with the Minotaur's head in the centre, sometimes with the Minotaur occupying the obverse; on those of Phæstus the Herakleian myth prevails. The bronze currency is abundant. There is a limited Roman imperial series.

The islands of the Ægæan Sea (Cyclades and Sporades), which, down to the second century B.C., constituted part of the Ptolemaic kingdom of Egypt, offer many points of numismatic interest and instruction; they are Amorgos, Andros, Ios, Delos, Syros, Tenos, Ceos, Naxos, Paros, Siphnos, Melos, &c. Our knowledge of the oldest remains is due to two finds at Thera (1821) and Melos, the former composed of nearly 800 coins, including some not of Cretan origin; but these do not go very far to assist us in forming a complete view of the evidently enormous volume of money in silver and bronze which emanated from this group down to Roman imperial days. The earliest of which we possess any exact knowledge belong to Paros, Naxos, Melos, and Ceos. The religious cults were manifold, and included those of Dionysos and Zeus, with whom we find at Ceos coupled a pastoral deity named Aristæos, supposed to have been capable of protecting the herdsman in summer from the rays of the sun. At Amorgos there are evidences of the worship of Asklepios, and at Anaphe of Apollo. There are numismatic proofs of occasional or partial federalism.

ASIA

Bosporos. — The two chief points of numismatic interest on the Asiatic side of the Cimmerian Bosporos are Gerpippia and Phanagoria, of both of which there are limited and unimportant currencies in silver

and bronze. There are also silver coins of Sinde of the fourth century B.C. It is supposed that the Roman imperial money of the time of Augustus, with the name of Agrippia Cæsareia, is referable to Phanagoria, and that the latter was temporarily known under that name. We have likewise a series of dynasts of the Cimmerian Bosporos from the second century B.C. to the fourth A.D., with Greek coins exhibiting inscriptions, the latter bearing on one side the head of the king, and on the other that of a Roman emperor.

Colchis (*Mingrelia*).—The only coinage seems to be pieces of the third or second century B.C, of base silver, with a bull's head, and bronze money of the first century B.C. of Dioscurias, with the emblem of the Dioscuri, the legendary founders of the place. A ruler named Aristarchus, only known by his coins, appears to have held sway in this district about 60 B.C.

Pontus, a district containing two or three towns with interesting associations, and over which a dynasty of princes reigned from about 250 B.C. to 63 A.D., when Pontus became a Roman province. The kings of Pontus at one time held nearly the whole of Asia Minor, and their chief mint was at Pergamum. The principal cities were Amasis, birthplace of Mithridates the Great and Strabo the historian, of which we have autonomous and Roman money with Greek inscriptions, Amisus, Sebastopolis, Zela, and Comana Pontica, of all of which there are coins, some of ancient date, in silver and bronze. Pontus embraced within its

boundaries many religious cults allied to those of the Greeks; others, as of Men, Enyo, Anaitis, and Serapis, were peculiar to itself. The high-priest of the goddess Enyo at Comana enjoyed a precedence next to that of the king. The high-priest of Zela united the temporal with the sacerdotal authority. Gold staters exist of Mithridates VI., but of the other dynasts there are only tetradrachms and their divisions, and bronze money, many with good portraits, though of inferior style and workmanship. The history and chronology of these personages are often very obscure.

Paphlagonia.—There are silver coins with Aramaic legends of certain satraps of this region, while it remained under Persian rule. But the central interest lies in one or two of the cities, namely, Amastria and Sinope. Of the former there are silver staters of Persic standard, with the deified head of Amastris the foundress, daughter of Darius Codomannus, in a Persian head-dress; but Sinope, an ancient city of Milesian origin, has a long numismatic history, having been an important Persian mint in the fourth century B.C., and continuing to strike money down to Roman times. A son of Nicomedes II. of Bithynia seems to have exercised sovereignty over Paphlagonia in the second century B.C.; but the dynasty was deposed by the Romans, and Paphlagonia, with Pontus, added to that empire.

Bithynia.—Except as a Roman province, there do not seem to be any coins of Bithynia *in genere*. Roman Bithynia comprehended that district or king-

dom, Paphlagonia, and Pontus. There is a plentiful coinage of cistophori, &c., issued under imperial authority or licence in the name of the *koinon* or community of Bithynia. But of the cities separately there are ancient autonomous coins from the sixth century B.C. belonging to Astacus, Calchedon, Cius, and Heracleia. There are gold staters of Cius, only known from the Sidon find (1865). Some of the religious indications on the money of the Pontic region allude to the worship of Antinous, Apollo, and Demeter. The money of Calchedon resembles that of Byzantium in the presence of the bull, which here has an ear of corn under his feet instead of a dolphin. The regal series extends from B.C. 278 to 74, and consists of six dynasts, so far as the evidence of coins goes. There are gold staters of Nicomedes II. Epiphanes, B.C. 149–91.

Mysia.—In this division of Greece there are several interesting and important considerations to occupy the attention of the numismatist and collector. We can only glance at them. Mysia embraced the ancient and extremely prolific mints of Cyzicus and Lampsacus, and was the source of that immense volume of convention-money known under the name of cistophori, of which the Bacchic type appealed to the common religious sympathies of the population among which they were intended to pass current. The principal coin-centres were Apollonia on the Rhyndacus, Cyzicus, Parium, Lampsacus, and Pergamum. The electrum coinages of Cyzicus and Lampsacus are well known, and in the case of the former we have the advantage

of the learned researches of Canon Greenwell. Pergamum was a noted stronghold under Lysimachus, king of Thrace, and became in B.C. 283 the capital of a kingdom under Philetærus of Tium, who had been treasurer to Lysimachus. All the money of Pergamum exhibits the head of the founder of the dynasty except that of Eumenes II. The regal government lasted from 283 to 133 B.C., when it became the capital of the Roman province of Asia. The bronze types, both of Pergamum and Cyzicus, under the Roman rule, are varied and local, preserving the traditional symbols found on those of the prior epochs. The British Museum has lately acquired a fine and rare gold stater, presumed to have been struck at Pergamum about B.C. 310 by Herakles, son of Alexander the Great by Barsine, when that personage was asserting his claim to the Macedonian throne. It may be some proof of the confidence and esteem with which Barsine was regarded by Alexander that the latter committed to her the government of Pergamum.

Troas.—This locality included Abydos, a very influential numismatic centre as far back as the sixth century B.C., and the place of origin of electrum staters, similar to those of Lampsacus, Miletus, &c., silver staters of the Persic standard and gold staters of the Euboic one, probably coined from the local mines mentioned by Xenophon. The bronze pieces range from the fifth to the first century B.C. There is a later silver coinage of autonomous character belonging to the period subsequent to the Roman conquest, but

of very inferior work. Other towns were Alexandria, Dardanos, Gergis, Lerissa, Ilium, Thymbra, Scamandria, and Sigeium. The money of Dardanos sometimes shews two cocks fighting. That of Gergis transmits the legend of the Gergittian sybil, who was said to have been born near there. The type of the feeding horse, which also occurs on coins of Neandria in the Troad and of Pheneus in Arcadia, may belong to this Larissa, although it has been assigned to Larissa in Thessaly. Thymbra, near Ilium, was so named by the founder, Dardanos, after his friend Thymbræus. One of the Roman imperial reverse types of Scepsis exhibits the judgment of Paris on Mount Ida. The island of Tenedos, off Troas, was an ancient site and mint. The prevailing type is the Janiform head on obverse and the reverse with its double axe, both significant of religious ideas or superstitions, and probably connected in meaning.

Æolis.—We possess Æolian money of the third century B.C. and later, both federal and civic. The former, which reads *Aiole*, is assumed to have been struck for the common use of the towns, the chief of which were Ægæ, Autocane (mentioned in the Homeric Hymn to Apollo, l. 53), Cyme, Grinium, Elæa, and Myrina. The most important was Cyme. On the money of Grinium the head of Apollo, which also occurs on that of Myrina and other places, probably alludes to the statue of the god in white marble once visible there. There are Æolian coins of Roman imperial origin.

Lesbos.—Within the confines of this island lay seve-

ral cities, of which the chief was Mytilene. The most ancient coins are electrum staters, and later pieces in base silver of two different standards and of several types, of which we may mention two calves' heads or two boars' heads facing each other, a lion's, a calf's, or a boar's head, two human eyes, or one eye. Some of these subjects present themselves on the electrum coinage, which was the earliest. It appears that the convention-money for the common use of Lesbos and Phocæa was struck at Mytilene about B.C. 438. The only other place of consequence was Methymna. In the *Hecatonnesi* off Lesbos there were coinages in silver and bronze, which are allusive in their legends to Apollo Smintheos and Asklepios.

IONIA.—This is, from our present point of view, a very wide field of inquiry, and at the same time, in regard to its earliest coinages, one where considerable obscurity still prevails. The most extensive and remarkable section in this case is the civic one. Clazomenæ, Colophon, Ephesus, Erythræ, Magnesia, Miletus, Smyrna, Teos, are names familiar to all; the most ancient examples are uninscribed. Of Clazomenæ a favourite early type or symbol is a winged boar, allusive to a legend of such a creature having once haunted the vicinity. Some of the gold and silver coins of the fourth century B.C. are of the best style; and on a tetradrachm occurs the name of the artist Theodotos. The autonomous gold and silver do not come down lower than the fourth century; but there are, as at Colophon, gold staters and silver tetradrachms of Mace-

donian type and of regal origin, and bronze coins down to Roman times. The famous Colophonian cavalry are denoted in the armed horseman which constitutes a reverse type on the coinage, as the head of Apollo, whose temple and oracle were in the vicinity, does on the obverse one. The money of Ephesus is divided into about eight classes, commencing with the electrum coins of the sixth century, and concluding with the Roman imperial series. The most singular feature of the primitive currency is the mystical type of the bee and the stag, symbols of the worship of the Nature-goddess, the high-priests of whose temple were called *King Bees*, and the priestesses *Bees*. The Roman money for Ephesus is plentiful, but of no great value or interest, except, perhaps, the pieces of religious significance, as that where the founder, Androclos, is slaying a wild boar, in allusion to the legend that he had been commanded by an oracle to build a city on the spot where he met such an animal. Of Magnesia the most noteworthy monument is the plated didrachm struck by Themistocles when he was banished from Athens and had this city assigned to him by the king of Persia (B.C. 464–449).

The earliest coins of MILETUS are associated with the oracle at Didymi of Apollo Didumæus, who was symbolised by the lion and the sun; and it may well be that they were struck within the temple, and continued so to be till the fourth century B.C., by the priests in charge. There are gold staters and silver pieces of the second century B.C., and bronze coins of analogous

types. To the Roman period (Augustus to Salomina) we have to assign a coin in the inferior metal of particular interest, as the obverse contains a copy of the statue of Apollo Didumæus by Canachus. The gold staters are rare.

PHOCÆA began, from its position on the Mediterranean as a maritime port, to avail itself of the earliest opportunity of possessing a coinage, which is referable to the seventh century B.C., and commences with electrum staters and their divisions, followed or accompanied by silver money of similar patterns, and succeeded by electrum *hectæ*; besides which there are staters of electrum struck at Mytilene and elsewhere in alliance with Phocæa, of the earlier or original class. More than one writer refers to staters of Phocæa as concurrent with the smaller pieces, but no examples of contemporary origin are known. The Phocæan bronze is common, and extends over a lengthened period. The money of Phygela seems to refer to the cult of Artemis Munychia, and that of Priene to that of Poseidon and Athena. The hippocamp held by the former on coins is common to the statue of the god mentioned by Eratosthenes, and presumably then at Priene. Of Smyrna we have nothing, owing to political circumstances, prior to the rebuilding of the city, when tetradrachms appeared with the turreted head of Kybele, who occurs as an obverse type on the unique gold stater in the French national collection. The autonomous and Roman imperial bronze is abundant, and presents numerous interesting inscriptions and types, including

that of Homer seated, which conferred on these pieces the name of *Omereia*. The griffin on the coins of Teos is figurative of the Dionysiac cult; the temple of the god at Teos was considered one of the finest specimens of Ionic architecture in Greece. A Phocaic gold stater bearing a griffin's head, and the reading *Teon*, has been ascribed to this place, and there are some small electrum pieces with the rare symbol which may belong here. There is an important series of archaic silver money, sixth to fourth century B.C., and bronze and Roman imperial brass of Dionysiac types; in one Anacreon appears seated, playing on a lyre.

There is also a short-lived satrapal currency in the fourth century, while Ionia and the neighbouring states were once more under Persian rule. These coins are of Persian type and in silver. The exact circumstances connected with their origin and legends do not seem to be known.

Of the Ionian group of islands, the only members which have transmitted numismatic records are Samos, Icaria, and Chios. The archaic Samian coinage, which probably attained the height of its importance under Polycrates (B.C. 532–522), consisted of electrum staters and their fractions; these were followed, while the island was in alliance with Athens, by silver money; and we find that the island successively, as it obeyed political exigencies, employed Athenian, federal, and Roman imperial types, becoming part of the Roman province of Asia. On some of the later coins we meet with a head of Hera on obverse, and on reverse the

prow of a Samian galley, on which stands a peacock, symbolical of the goddess. The Roman series preserves the Greek myths, and not merely those immediately appertaining to Samos, but to the legendary history of its Ionian neighbours.

CARIA.—The most conspicuous points were Cnidus (the seat of the worship of the Triopian Apollo and of Aphrodite), Cheronesus, and Halicarnassus, the reputed birthplace of Herodotus. Apollo is symbolised on the money by a lion (as elsewhere), and Aphrodite by a bull or the prow of a galley. The coins go back to the sixth century B.C. We may also mention Astyra, opposite Rhodes, an early seat of coinage. The regal series, including that of the celebrated Mausolus, extends from about 391 to about 333 B.C. only. Halicarnassus was the capital, and this city on its currency perpetuated the cult of Zeus. The Roman imperial money for the different centres is considerable both in volume and interest; it still embodied in its types the local religious sentiments of the people. We would call attention to an unique electrum stater of Halicarnassus of archaic fabric, described by Dr. Head. In connection with Caria are the more or less adjacent islands, and foremost Rhodes, of which there is an abundant coinage in all metals, chiefly conforming to the Rhodian standard, and commencing in the fifth century B.C. It comes down to Roman times, and includes some of Macedonian and Thracian regal types. The fine head of Helios on many of the obverses was copied from the colossal statue of Apollo by Chares of Lindus.

LYDIA.—The most ancient coined money of Greek type and character was of Asiatic origin, and we have to cross over into another continent in search of the germs of the archaic gold currency of Bœotia and the Hellespont. In the seventh century B.C. it is traditionally believed that Gyges, king of Lydia, founder of the dynasty of the Mermnadæ, first struck at Sardis electrum staters and their divisions of the Babylonic and Phœnician standards for respective use in different parts of his dominions. The *stater* of the former weight (about 167 gr.) constitutes, perhaps, the earliest precedent for the usage of adapting a coinage to the region or object for which it was designed, as this light piece is supposed to have been limited in its circulation to the interior, while the Phœnician (about 220 gr.) was reserved for commercial purposes, where the other would not have been acceptable. The electrum coinage was superseded after the Persian conquest by the gold daric, and the latter by the cistophori, struck by the Romans here and elsewhere upon their formation of the province of Asia, in the second century B.C. We possess, of later times, imperial and alliance coins (*cistophori*) only, with a few exceptions, where cities such as Sardis and Philadelphia continued to issue autonomous bronze money, doubtless under Roman sanction, and generally inscribed with magistrates' names.

PHRYGIA.—The coinage is largely of Roman imperial origin, but merits attention and study from its interesting elucidations of geography and mythology. Probably the most curious type is that of Apameia, with

the ark or chest exhibiting two inmates, and inscribed *Noe*, a too literal graft of the early Christian element in the locality on Paganism. The only trace of monarchical government seems to be at Cibyra, which with three other towns was for some time under the sway of *reguli* or tyrants. The preponderance of the money of Phrygia is Roman brass, of which the reverse types illustrate local cults, as those of Zeus, Aphrodite, &c.

LYCIA.—Federation, of which we find two distinct eras, was the prevailing figure which here governed the character of the money; the favourite symbol is the famous triquetra or three-legged emblem, occasionally varied so as to form a diskelis or tetraskelis; but boars, winged lions, griffins, and bulls likewise occur. The presence of the triskelis, emblematical of the solar revolutions, on the group of monuments belonging to this region, seems to set at rest the theory as to its original application to Sicily. The reader may be usefully referred to Sir Charles Fellows' "Coins of Ancient Lycia," and to a paper in the *Revue Numismatique* for 1886 by M. Six. There are coins of the fifth century B.C.; some of those of later date bear legends in the Lycian character. The series comes down to Roman imperial times. There are here, as in Phrygia, very remarkable types significant of ancient beliefs, and a particularly striking one, a coin of Myra, engraved by Head.

PAMPHYLIA contained within its boundaries several noteworthy and ancient seats of coinage, of which we may specify Aspendus, where we get the Slinger (Asphendetis) and triskelis types, Attalia, Antiochia, and Side.

There are regal types arising from the formation of the province with other territory into the kingdom of Galatia, B.C. 36, and Roman imperial coins (Augustus to Salonina), as well as alliance money and tetradrachms, countermarked with a bow and bow-case and M.M., to pass current for the same value as *cistophori*.

PISIDIA lay to the north of Pamphylia and Lycia, and was a very mountainous country. With the exception of Selge, which struck autonomous coins of the triskelis, wrestlers, and Slinger types in the 4th–3rd centuries B.C., the money of Pisidia is chiefly unimportant or Roman imperial. Pisidia successively formed part of the kingdoms of Pergamum and Galatia.

LYCAONIA, to the east of Pisidia, possesses a somewhat feeble numismatic interest. Its few autonomous coins are bronze of late date; but we discern traces of the worships of Zeus, Pallas, Herakles, and Hermes; and it was at Lystra that the inhabitants saluted Barnabas and Paul as Zeus and Hermes.

CILICIA, divided into Eastern and Western, in the former of which the Greek, and in the latter the Aramaic language was that of the country, possessed a coinage in the fifth century B.C., with legends which are often bilingual. The ancient mints were Tarsus (of such peculiar Scriptural celebrity), Mallus, and Celenderis; but others were afterward added. Some of the money of the fourth century discloses a strong Persian influence, proceeding from the occupation of the ports by Persian satraps for strategical purposes. The coinage goes back to the sixth century B.C., of which

epoch there are electrum staters of Tarsus of great rarity, and comes down to Roman times. Under the Seleucid kings Tarsus was a leading mint.

CYPRUS.—The rich and large series belonging to this island dates from the sixth century B.C. Much has been done to identify and arrange it, but it forms a subject over which, both from historical and philological difficulties, a great deal of uncertainty and obscurity yet hangs; and the task of classification is aggravated by the normally poor condition and careless execution of specimens. The coinage may be divided into civic, dynastic (proceeding from *reguli*), regal (under the Ptolemies), and Roman imperial. There are many beautiful and characteristic productions, and nearly all are curious and valuable as evidences of the existence of rulers, sites, or legendary faiths. Of the kings of Salamis (4th–3rd century B.C.) the sequence is unusually complete. Cyprus was under Ptolemy Soter and his successors an Egyptian mint, and later on a Roman one.

GALATIA was erected into a kingdom, as above noted, late in the first century B.C. There is a very short regal series and a Roman imperial one, besides autonomous civic money of Germa, Pessinus, Tavium, &c., from which conclusions may be drawn as to the long survival of cults relating to Zeus, Aphrodite, Dionysos, Asklepios, Men, &c.

CAPPADOCIA was, in addition to its municipal or urban currencies, the seat of two regal dynasties (B.C. 380–A.D. 17), both of which struck money in silver and bronze; but perhaps the more interesting coins are

those of the cities and of the Roman period, when Cappadocia was a procuratorship. The prevailing religious idea presented on them is the snow-capped and deified Mount Argæus, rising to an altitude of 13,000 feet above the sea.

ARMENIA is not known to have struck any coins prior to the second century B.C., when two of its nobles, revolting from Syria, divided the territory between them, distinguishing the two portions as the Lesser and the Greater Armenia. There are coins of these dynasts down to A.D. 35, when the country was under Roman protection, as we infer from a denarius on which Germanicus is represented crowning the last king, Artaxias.

SYRIA is one of the most important of the ancient divisions of Asia from a numismatic point of view, as we enjoy an uninterrupted succession of the Seleucidan coins from the fourth to the first century B.C., when Syria was incorporated with Armenia under Tigranes (B.C. 83–69). The portraits of the Seleucidæ offer unusual individuality of character, and among them occurs that of Cleopatra, mother of Seleucus V., and consort of Antiochus VIII. The head of Tigranes has an Armenian tiara; his coins exhibit barbarous reverses, and he is described on many of them in the Oriental fashion as King of Kings. Besides the money of the Seleucid kings, we have that of those of Commagene and Chalcidene; of the cities, including Palmyra, Seleucis, Antioch, &c.; of Cœle-Syria, where Damascus is the leading centre; of Decapolis, and of Phœnicia, in the last of which there were the important towns or cities of

Aradus, Berytus, Marathus, Sidon, Tripolis, and Tyre; of Samaria and Judæa. The whole of this extensive region was a very productive source of Greek and other types, of which the shekel and its divisions with Samaritan inscriptions must not be overlooked. The coins are not, on the whole, so difficult to procure as was often formerly the case; successive finds have rendered accessible many which were once almost unknown, including the half-shekels struck over Roman denarii. The oldest coins of Phœnicia appear to be those of Sidon and Tyre, both names suggestive of commercial prosperity and associated with the Hebrew Scriptures. From A.D. 6 Judæa had been a Roman procuratorial government subordinate to the præfects of Syria. It was in the eighteenth year of the Emperor Tiberius, when Valerius Gratus and Pontius Pilatus held this office, that Jesus Christ was crucified at Jerusalem. A full account of Syria and the countries contiguous to it, including the Holy Land, is to be found in the *Historia Numorum* and the authorities there cited.

ARABIA.—Leaving the ground consecrated by its more or less intimate associations with Christ and Christianity, and with the Apostles, we pass into Arabia, where we have the two numismatic divisions of Arabia Petræa and Arabia Felix, with some unimportant regal coins of ephemeral and obscure dynasts; a series of the currencies of the Himyarite line of kings, which governed a large territory in Arabia Felix during many centuries, and copied Greek and Roman models; and, lastly, the Roman imperial money, of

which some of the types are interesting and historically instructive.

In Mesopotamia, where we again approach Scriptural scenes, and the reputed cradle of the human race, Babylonia, and Assyria, coins were struck by the cities, by the Syrian Seleucidæ, by native *reguli*, and by the Romans. Among the more important centres were Edessa, Carrhæ, and Seleucia on the Tigris, the second-named famous for its worship of the Moon. The reverse types of the Roman epoch are often of mythological interest.

Parthia. — This, like other States (comp. Bactria *infra*), erected out of larger and well-established governments, not only at once produced a well-executed coinage under the first of the Arsacidæ, circa 250 B.C., but that of the succeeding kings suffered a progressive declension in fabric and style, till toward the end of the series the inscriptions and types become equally barbarous and illegible. Nevertheless, in this branch of the inquiry (B.C. 249 to A.D. 227) we have, down to a certain point, many productions interesting from their costume and from the presence of dates. The titles are curious, and are servilely borrowed from those found on the Greek money. The most intelligible is that of *Philellen*, adopted to propitiate the Greek element in the Parthian dominions. It is said that Seleucus II. of Syria (B.C. 246–226) borrowed the fashion of wearing a beard, to which he owed the sobriquet of Pogon, from having resided in Parthia, whose kings are generally represented bearded.

Persis (capital, Persepolis) enjoyed a brief interval of regal autonomy in the third century B.C., and to this circumstance, due to the temporary weakness of the Seleucid dynasty in Syria, we owe certain tetradrachms and gold staters of Athenian and Macedonian patterns, but of barbarous work and with indistinct legends. One of the silver types exhibits a king worshipping before a fire-altar. The coins of the Sassanidæ, which extend from the third to the seventh century A.D., and represent the product of thirty reigns, and those of Characene in Susiana, constitute other departments of the Greek school of work, to which, as being almost outside the strict lines, it is impossible to do more than refer in the present case; and the same is predicable of the Persian series of gold darics and silver *sigloi*; the main Hellenic feature of interest about the former being that about B.C. 331 Alexander the Great is supposed to have first struck the double darics, of which specimens, once extremely rare, are now more or less readily procurable. The ordinary coin is remembered by the anecdote of Agesilaus and the thirty thousand archers, who had driven him out of Athens—allusively to the figure on the coin.

Bactria and Northern India.—The line of succession of the princes of this region, and the extent and distribution of their authority, are still unsettled and incomplete, although the rich fruit of excavations in Affghanistan and the Punjaub has placed our knowledge of the coinage on an entirely new footing. The series is at present known to have extended from about

B.C. 250 to about A.D. 250, and to embrace about thirty reigns. It commences with Diodotos, who made himself independent of Syria, and of whom we have staters and tetradrachms, as well as copper or bronze money, of good work. His successors produced some fine examples of portraiture down to Menander, but not uninterruptedly, as many of the intervening rulers shew coins of inferior execution, and in nearly all the reverse types are unequal to the obverse. The inscriptions are often bilingual, and the fabric of the tetradrachms is usually widespread; among the smaller denominations there are pieces of square form. The mythology is partly Greek and partly Indian. We allude elsewhere to the unique 20-stater piece of Eukratides, to the unique tetradrachm of Plato, king of Bactria, and to another with the busts of Eukratides, Heliocles, and Laodice. The tetradrachms of Heliocles vary in their style, owing, no doubt, to the mint or circumstances.

AFRICA

ÆGYPT, like Bactria, Parthia, and so many other States which acquired independence between the middle of the fourth and that of the third century B.C., was a kingdom originally founded by Ptolemy, one of the generals of Alexander the Great, and to this source we are indebted for a lengthened, rich, and varied series of coins in all metals down to Roman imperial times. The money of the Ptolemies themselves, more particu-

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larly the earlier princes of the line with their consorts, rank first in point of importance and attraction. We may specify the gold octadrachms and tetradrachms of Ptolemy III., and the gold octadrachms of Berenice II., and Arsinoe. But the coins of the cities, especially of Alexandria and of the Nomes of Egypt, offer an inexhaustible variety of types, of historical, mythological, and astronomical significance, which can only be treated in a monograph. In the precious Alexandrian series there is no limit to the diversity and utility. Akerman long since pointed out two matters of detail which we here reproduce: the custom of noting the date by the letter L preceding the word *one* or other number, whence comes to us the information, for instance, th[at] the visit of Hadrian to this city took place in the f[ifteenth] teenth year of his reign; and again, the type of I[sis] Faria, or Pharia, holding a sail, which, if stretched o[utward] ward, indicated vows offered up for a safe voyage, [and] if inward, for a safe return. There is also the l[ead] brass series belonging here, and rarely found in g[ood] state, with reverses significant of local faiths [and] cults.

Ethiopia possessed kings or other rulers who st[ruck] money with Greek or Græco-Coptic inscriptions as [far] back as the fourth century B.C.; but very little is kn[own] of one or the other. There were early commercial r[ela]tions between Egypt and the modern Abyssinia, w[hich] rendered some currency essential; and, as elsew[here] the types were copies of Greek money by engr[avers] unacquainted with that language; the later pieces

Ethiopian legends. The metals appear to have been gold and bronze, both of small module.

Cyrene and its colony, Barce, equally go back, numismatically and politically speaking, to the sixth century B.C. The former, itself a Dorian settlement, has left us a wealthy assortment of most interesting regal and other coins in electrum, silver, gold, and bronze. The electrum was the earliest metal employed, if the attribution to Cyrene be correct; but there were also archaic gold pieces, as indicated by Babelon and other authorities. A prevailing type on the most ancient silver money is the silphium plant, its leaf, bud, or seed. Certain tetradrachms of thick fabric are thought to have been struck by Arcesilaus III. in B.C. 530 to pay his Samian and Rhodian auxiliaries, when he regained power with the aid of Polycrates, tyrant of Samos. In B.C. 247, Magas, queen of Cyrene, brought that country in dower to Ptolemy III. of Egypt. There are later Roman coins. But the first period was during the republican era, B.C. 431–321, to which we have to refer all the gold and silver pieces of the best workmanship and of Greek style. At Barce we also find the silphium type, and money in gold, silver, and bronze. The money is scarce and valuable, which may partly proceed from the decline of the place after the rise of its port Ptolemais under the Egyptian kings. The three remaining townships in Cyrenaica also issued coins. There is a tetradrachm of Euesperides at Turin, said to be unique.

The coinages of Libya, Byzacene, and Syrtica or Tripolitana (from its three cities) are of late date, and principally of bronze; Leptis Magna, colonised from Sidon, was the most important place, and struck money in silver and bronze in the first century B.C., with Dionysiac and Herakleian types. It has been thought that the primitive inhabitants of the Canary Islands, which had their own chieftains, were emigrants from Libya, and they must have had a currency, as their rule extended over hundreds of years prior to the Spanish conquest. Zeugitana included Utica, Hippo, and above all Carthage, of which the coinage betrays a powerful Sicilian influence; the best period was from the fifth to the fourth century B.C. (410–240). There is money in gold, electrum, silver, and bronze. The silver tetradrachm, bearing the deified head of Dido, may be mentioned; it seems to have supplied a model to some of the modern engravers for a personification of Liberty. The large silver pieces of later date with the head of Persephone are of coarse work. The authorities classify the currencies connected with this illustrious city as follow:—Siculo-Punic coins (410–310); coins struck at Carthage (340–146); Carthaginian coins struck in Spain; those struck under the Romans subsequently to the rebuilding by Julius Cæsar in B.C. 44, to which may be appended the coins emanating from the islands between Africa and Sicily in the second and first centuries B.C. Dr. Head has pointed out that the similarity of the Capuan coins to those of Carthage may have proceeded from the fact that, while Hannibal

was wintering in the former city, B.C. 216–215, money familiar to his troops was struck on the spot.

There is comparatively little Hellenic element or interest in the numismatic systems of Numidia and Mauretania, of which two regions we possess regal and urban series belonging to the first century B.C., and, in fact, of the former kingdom the fabric and weight are rather Roman than Greek. Of Juba I. of Numidia, Cicero speaks as a young man *bene capillatus*, and another Roman writer relates how Cæsar on one occasion took him by the beard.

Of Mauretania the regal list is incomplete, and we do not know whether Bogud III., who flourished about B.C. 50–30, is the King Bocchus who engaged in medical and philosophical pursuits, and confounded the learned men of his court by drinking poison with impunity *in the name of the Trinity*, and by the wonderful things which he collected from the Book of Noah, according to the terms of an early English work (said to be translated from the French), printed at London about 1530.

To Iol in this country are ascribed the second brass Roman coins, bearing a portrait of Julia, only child of Augustus.

V

ROME

When we enter upon the consideration of the Roman coinage, we of course find ourselves occupying very interesting ground, yet we cannot fail to be aware of the change which has occurred in the atmosphere surrounding the new branch of our inquiry. The Romans, as the next and yet more westerly centre of civilisation and power, had owed much to their precursors before they acquired the opportunity of politically supplanting them; the brass *æs*, in its primitive amplitude, was characteristic of rude Pelasgian grandeur, for this heavy currency or medium, which supplied a prototype of the phenomenal Swedish dalers of the eighteenth century, was common to the cities of Southern Italy, which the new empire necessarily absorbed, and was in fact adopted, rather than initiated, by Rome. We have already seen that in Lydia the archaic money was of gold, for the apparent reason that that region possessed mines of that ore; and in the same way in Italy, copper being abundant, and the primitive inhabitants having been instructed in the art of smelting it and hardening it by an alloy of tin, we find what was termed *æs*, or bronze, in use throughout the southern

part of the peninsula centuries before any gold or even silver coinage was introduced. Again, the Consular series of *denarii*, *quinarii*, *aurei*, no less than the so-called *Romano-Campanian* gold (twenty, forty, and sixty *sestertii*), are for the most part of Hellenic fabric, and represent the best and purest period of Italian numismatic art prior to the Renaissance. In the Roman imperial series the two leading features and attractions are the portraits of the emperors and empresses, and other august personages, and the reverses significant of historical events, for which they are sometimes the sole existing evidence. The execution of the likenesses, from the Augustan era down to the fall of the Western Empire, is artistic yet lifelike; the series of empresses and other *Augustæ* is a most interesting gallery for the costume and head-dress as well as the features; and we turn with curiosity to many an obscure name in the later portion of the annals for the lineaments of a man whose reign was reckoned by weeks or days, but whose earliest care was to stamp his effigy on the money.

Rome was originally, and through the entire period of prosperity remained, the official and political centre from which all acts of government took their initiative. As Paris is said to be France, and as London is really the United Kingdom, so Rome was the Roman empire, till a combination of agencies led to its disruption. The coinage of the Romans for their Greek colonies and Asiatic and African dependencies resembled in its fabric and complexion that for internal use, and if it was not struck at home, as was the case with the

extensive colonial series of Venice later on, we may presume that it was the work of Italian moneyers, or at least from dies approved by the representative of imperial authority.

Thus it will be understood that GREECE and ROME are in an equal measure generic terms applicable at the respective dates of highest prosperity to vast territories extending over three continents, and embracing populations infinitely diversified in their climatic conditions, their language, their customs, and the nature of their allegiance. But the comparison fails altogether when we begin to consider that these two great empires obeyed diametrically opposite laws of political existence, and that while Hellas in ancient times never possessed a central government, but passed through the stages of separate republics, federalism, and a mixed system of democracy and autocracy, fluctuating agreeably to current circumstances and the successive rise of men capable of shifting the balance of power, Rome remained, on the contrary, during several centuries the metropolis of the then known world, round which all the states and princes subject to her jurisdiction revolved. Not even excepting, perhaps, the older Asiatic monarchies, the Romans set the earliest example of centralised government, as it is now conducted in Europe with very few and immaterial exceptions. The Romans were a connecting link between the political life of the past and of the present.

Some account will be found in the authorities of the archaic method of computation by weight for pur-

poses of barter and exchange through the medium of a bronze or brass coinage, of which the unit was at first a square or oblong cast ingot of twelve ounces (*æs libralis*), and its multiple, stamped with the head of Janus or Minerva, a bull, a sheep, a sow, a fowl, or two fowls feeding, or a shell; from some of which emblems we may perhaps infer that the word *pecunia* is a derivative from *pecus*. But the presence of these symbols in some cases was not merely literal, and is capable of an explanation on historical or religious grounds, as, for instance, the sow and the two fowls, of which the latter may be referable to the sacred birds kept for augury, and the former to the veneration of the ancient Romans for an animal which Æneas was said to have seen bringing forth thirty young on the site where the city was subsequently built, the number surviving in the thirty *curiæ*, and by its multiple in the three hundred *gentes*. The heaviest and most ancient ingot which appears to have come down to us was formerly in the Pembroke collection, and weighed 4 lbs. 9 oz. 11 dwts. 38 grains. It is probably a *quincussis*; it bears the figure of an ox. It is not necessary to assume that the *decussis*, or double, mentioned by Akerman as having on obverse Minerva in a biga, and on reverse the prow of a galley, belonged to the same period, as its type shews it to have been of much later date. While the *æs* maintained its original standard, it seems to have served not only as a medium of currency, but as a basis of fiscal assessment and social distribution in regal Rome, where the five classes of Servius Tullius were

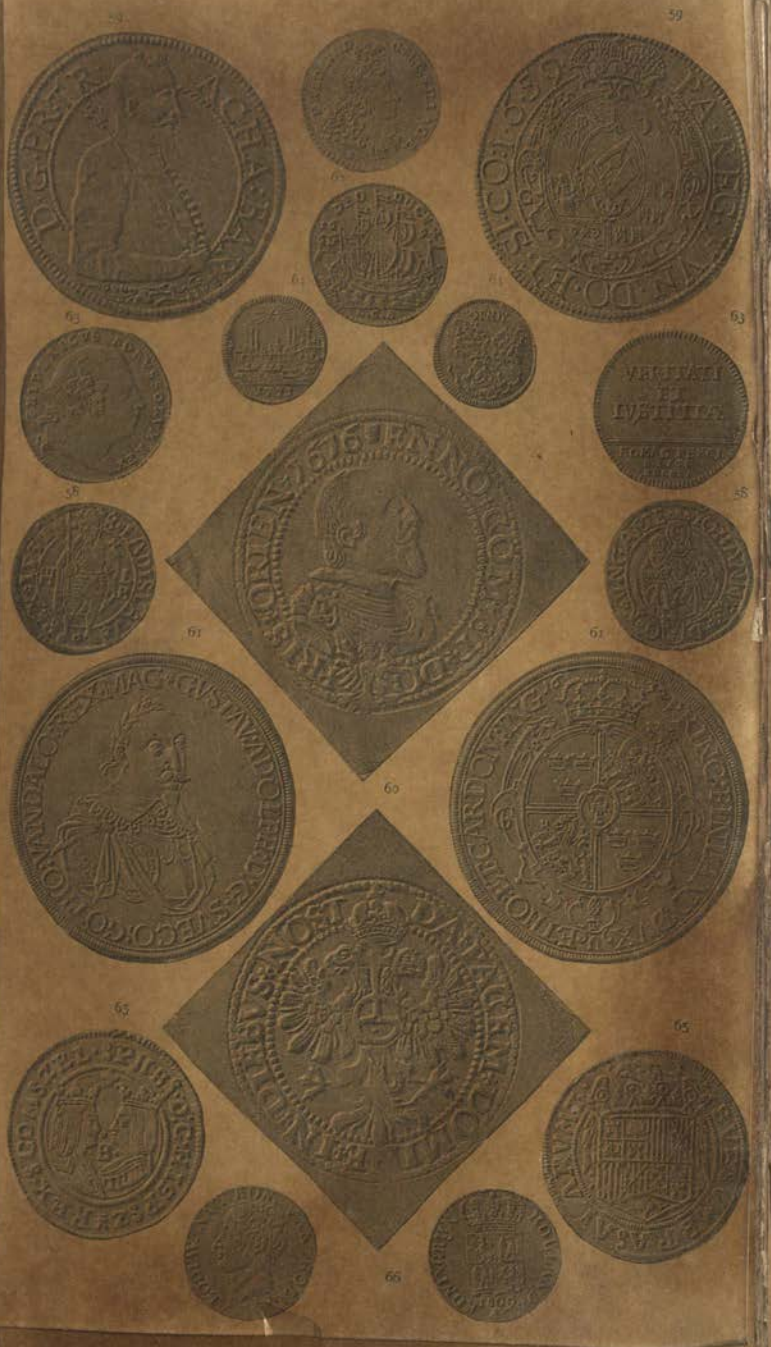
required to possess a graduated property qualification from 20,000 to 2000 pounds of bronze. The square *æs* was successively reduced from twelve ounces to nine ounces or 9½ ounces, and the circular form to four ounces, two ounces, one ounce, and half an ounce, when it became an actual coin; and it is to be supposed that Macrobius the grammarian, who lived in the fourth or fifth century of our era, alludes to the modified piece when he speaks of the Roman youths tossing up the money and crying *capita aut navia?*—in reference to the head and the prow of a galley on either side. In the Roman Consular series the highly picturesque types form a valuable adjunct to classical mythology, as the coins on their reverses generally present an allusion to some familiar legend associated with the prehistoric or primitive annals of the republic. The earliest silver coinage took place about B.C. 485, and the types chosen were Greek in their feeling and taste: a figure driving a chariot, a galeated head of Rome, a Janiform head, all with the word *Roma*, at first in indented letters. These pieces were *denarii* = the ancient *decussis* or two *æra*, and they were followed by the *quinarii* and *victoriati* = respectively to a half and two-thirds of the larger denomination. It is extremely probable that the *æs*, in its final module under the Papirian law, remained current long after the introduction of a higher metal, in emulation of the Greek system in Southern Italy, and that the *denarius* and its divisions merely superseded the multiples of the brass or bronze, no longer found necessary or convenient, except that in the more remote parts

of the amplified Roman territory, and still more among the ruder population of the adjoining Italian states or cities, we can well believe that the old-fashioned system lingered for a considerable time.

The coinage of bronze of reduced standard survived the principle on which the Roman gentes or families struck money with their names and with types indicative of legendary or actual incidents connected with them, and these only gave way to the silver series of denarii and their parts by degrees. The denarius under the republic was adjusted to the weight of the Greek drachma, which must have long been a familiar coin at Rome, and have been accepted in commercial payments in default of a national silver currency; and the spirit of the bronze money was maintained in rendering the new medium in equal measure a vehicle for embodying and perpetuating traditions of the past and actual events of the time, while the Romans, among the fruits of their victories and conquests in Greece, adapted the types on the new metal, of which they thus acquired an abundance, to those of their Hellenic subjects or dependents in workmanship and style. The transition from the *æs* system to that of the *denarius*—from a bronze to a silver standard—was gradual but complete, and during most part of the republican period we find only silver and gold employed, the latter very sparingly. It is supposed that the original *denarii*, struck in the third century B.C., are those with the head of Pallas or Roma, with the numeral X for the value, and on the reverse the Dioscuri with *Roma* in the exergue. The

association of Castor and Pollux with the legendary annals of Rome may be familiar to those who have read Macaulay's "Lay of the Battle of the Lake Regillus." The *denarius* had been in circulation some length of time before the *quinarius* or half was added, and the *sestertius* or *sesquitertius* or quarter was probably a still later institution.

The silver republican money of Rome is plentiful enough to this day, and with its beautiful and fascinating types, so diversified, so chaste, so eloquent, lies within the reach of any one at the most moderate prices in pristine condition, if we except certain families, which happen to be rare, and the gold, which is always costly. Nor should it be forgotten that pieces belonging to the most ancient mintage are of the greatest rarity, having been presumably struck in smaller numbers. The original simplicity of the design was naturally lost in the more elaborate details, which found room on obverse and reverse in course of time, including the name of the *gens* or the individual and that of the moneyer. The art is throughout Greek, and if there is any fault in the execution it generally lies in the reverses, where the nude human figure is portrayed. There cannot be a more charming series for a collector who does not desire heavy expenditure, and does not insist on completeness; and the *victoriati* and their divisions and multiples, which were posterior in their appearance by nearly a century, constitute appropriate adjuncts to the *denarius* group, where we may read a history in little of the period over which it extended.



The first essays in the direction of striking gold and higher values in silver seem to have been equally due to the exigencies of war, and to have been temporary experiments independent of the normal coinage. We allude, of course, to the *scripulum* of 20 sesterces and its multiples of 40 and 60 in the most precious metal, with the head of Mars struck during the campaign with Hannibal, at Capua or elsewhere, in or about B.C. 206, and to the *tridrachm* in silver, and the pieces of 52 and 105 sesterces in gold, which form the earliest convention-money of Rome, and refer to the treaty between the republic and Capua for the subjugation of Southern Italy; the reverses of the latter coins exhibit two parties swearing an oath over a sow, an Italian usage of the highest antiquity. A similar type belongs to the *denarii* and other money issued in Italy in the name of the Anti-Roman League during the Social War in B.C. 91, where eight warriors are represented performing the same rite; and Livy furnishes the alleged text of the adjuration.

A very copious account of the Roman family series is to be found in Humphreys, Akerman, and Stevenson. The portraiture has a twofold interest in supplying us not only with contemporary, but with posthumous likenesses of illustrious Romans. We obtain through this medium the best busts of such men as Cæsar, the Pompeys, and Mark Antony, and the earliest one of Augustus; and down to the last days of the republic the Janiform head was occasionally employed. Where mythological subjects occur, as they so often do, we

perceive without difficulty the strong Greek influence on the sentiment as well as on the style. Numismatists have gradually accomplished much to elucidate the import of the subjects and symbols represented; the coining implements and machinery, with the helmet of Vulcan above, on a denarius of the Carisia gens, are curious as shewing us the fittings, as it were, of a Roman mint. We shall see later on that the Romans long preserved their taste for writing their history on these imperishable monuments.

To the last years of the Roman commonwealth appertain those exceptionally attractive silver and gold pieces with the heads of Cæsar, Mark Antony, Octavianus or Augustus, Brutus, and Lepidus with symbolical accessories on the reverse and of various types; and the Janiform one survived in its occasional employment, as in pieces with busts of the Pompey and Cinna families, down to the commencement of the empire, but no longer of a fixed or statutory weight. The Cinna coin is of superior style. Some of the coins of Cæsar and others above mentioned are without portraits; but there is the denarius bearing the effigy of Cæsar himself as Pontifex Maximus and Perpetual Dictator, and a gold *solidus* of similar character, of which one variety is of much finer work than the other. The coinage of the triumvirate formed after his death is also highly interesting, and exists in several modifications; but probably the most fascinating series is that struck by Mark Antony, either with his head alone, wearing a radiated crown or an Armenian tiara, or with the jugate

heads of Cleopatra and himself, particularly the silver tetradrachm from the mint at Alexandria about 33 B.C., where the Egyptian princess is figured as the *New Isis*.

With the democratic form of government the old monetary system gave way to a new and more elaborate one in the three metals; and the Roman imperial coinage affords the first example of one where gold, silver, and copper or bronze appear to have been during the best period struck, proportionately speaking, in equal abundance, unless we have to except Egypt under the Ptolemies. There is as complete a revolution in the numismatic as in the political state of affairs. The ancient system was superseded by a new principle, under which the unit was the *æs* yet further reduced in weight, the *dupondius*, and the *sestertius*, or, as we usually say, first, second, and third brass, with the *denarius* in silver = 10 *sestertii*, and the *aureus* or *solidus* = in weight to 2 and in value to 20 *denarii*; yet a good deal of caution and patience was displayed by Augustus before he rendered his personality and autocracy too prominent on the currency; and one point is conspicuous, namely, that although the coinage forms three divisions, that of the lowest metal in the first size, which had been identified with the primitive epoch, was under the empire the only one of which the issue was subject to the authority of the Senate, and that on which, partly owing to its diametrical capacity, we meet with the most interesting recollections most carefully treated, and the finest portraits of the Cæsars and their august kindred and consorts. Moreover, certain

reigns, such as those of Hadrian and Antoninus Pius, present us with large bronze medallions and smaller pieces of silver rich in archæological interest, and in testimony to the respect still cherished for the traditions of the mythical epoch or for the Greek cults which the joint influence of trade and conquest had made familiar to the Romans. This fine and valuable series in the two metals exists of the emperors from Augustus to the Antonines, but specimens are rare. The first brass struck at Alexandria with various mythological reverses, chiefly of local or at least Asiatic origin, under some of the later Cæsars, may be classed under the same head; these are not uncommon, except in high preservation.

As in the Consular coinage, there are many exceptions to the prevailing rule in regard to the scarcity of the imperial money in the respective metals. The bulk of it is remarkably common, especially in second and third brass; but the first brass of many reigns, and of those out of the direct line of succession, such as Marciana and Matidia, is difficult to procure; and *patination* is imperative. The gold and silver of the earlier Cæsars is mostly plentiful, but the later and briefer reigns offer frequent difficulties to the collector who aims at being complete. The work alikè in both metals is very unequal, and even on the same coin the obverse is superior to the reverse, the artist who engraved the portrait proving less successful in the symbol or allegory on the other side. As we have noted under Greece, the objects on the reverse often doubtless represent

copies of actual works of art existing at Rome when they first appeared, like the figure of Hope on the first brass of Claudius, which is found represented on some of the subsequent money in inferior style. When we come to the later reigns, we find the execution of the secondary details more and more careless. As we pass from the Roman to the Byzantine group, we become sensible of a transition to a spirit and style half Greek and half Oriental, and except that no collection can pretend to be even representative without specimens of the numismatic productions of the Lower Empire, there is very slight importance beyond the occasional illustration of contemporary costume in the long succession from the fourth century B.C. to the thirteenth century of our own era.

Of the Emperor Otho there is no *Roman* brass, and the gold is scarce. In the third brass, and in the size intermediate between that and the second, there are not a few rarities, but, as a general rule, not a year elapses without swelling the already vast and overwhelming volume of these pieces, which appear to have been buried in large numbers in nearly all parts of the ancient world. Intrinsically they possess the highest value, and are for the most part carefully executed. Those of Constantine the Great, from a variety of mints (London included), are particularly abundant and diversified, and there are several types of his mother Helena, who is remembered as the discoverer of the true Cross.

The coins relating to Britain, among which those

of Constantine are to be included, embrace the pieces struck at Rome to commemorate the triumphs of the imperial arms over the barbarous islanders, which commence with the reign of Claudius, the series in all metals of the British-born Cæsar Albinus, and the large assemblage, also in gold, silver, and copper, of Carausius and Allectus, comprising many rare types.

There is another family of Roman coins, to which attention is due—those of earlier reigns restored by the later rulers; they commence with Augustus, and are sometimes far rarer than the original money.

Speaking generally, the interest resident in these monuments is either historical or personal, if not both. On the reverses, though in a more limited measure than in the republican money perhaps, and in a different way, there are records of events of which we might otherwise have known nothing; and the portraits of such men as Augustus, Hadrian, Trajan, Marcus Aurelius, Severus, Alexander, Constantine the Great, Julian, and of some of the august ladies who enjoyed the privilege of appearing on the coinage, Livia, Crispina, Matidia, Marciana, Plotina, Domna, inspire us with a strange sympathetic interest, of which we are not quite able to divest ourselves when we contemplate the effigies of Tiberius, Commodus, Elagabalus (whose features belie his character), of Julia, the daughter of Augustus, the two Faustinas, and Lucilla. Of Augustus it may be questioned if we do not obtain in the *Divos Ivlivs* piece a more veracious resemblance than on the ordinary currency, and the

restitutions by Trajan and Titus doubtless flatter the founder of the dynasty.

Full details of all the rulers and their numismatic incidence may be found in Stevenson, Humphreys, and Akerman; or, again, where technical minutiæ are desired, in Mionnet and Cohen.

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VI

CONTINENT OF EUROPE

THE necessarily succinct sketch which we present in this case of the numismatic history of a vast and prolific region may be read side by side with the more copious account which we were enabled to furnish in a preceding publication, the "Coinage of the European Continent," 1893. The two great sources of inspiration and development were Teutonic and Scandinavian, or, in other words, the earliest as well as the best suggestions for modern numismatic productions were derived from the North by different channels, and supplanted the Greek, Roman, and Byzantine models, which we recognise in the so-termed Merovingian money, and in the primitive currencies of Gaul and Britain. We shall perceive how during centuries the whole of the Continent satisfied itself with a monetary system of the simplest and most meagre description, how in actual circulating media it possessed down to the thirteenth century nothing higher than the silver penny and its equivalent, and how it was the great commercial and religious movement stimulated by the Crusades which, by opening new routes for trade, and drawing more closely together the East

and West of Europe and the coasts of Asia and Africa, led to the conception of higher denominations of coined specie of fixed standard, first in silver, and finally in gold. As it had happened in Lydia when Gyges struck for mercantile purposes an electrum stater of 220 grains against one of about 167 for internal use, the early Italian trading communities took the initiative in making, at all events, their gold money of such true weight as to ensure its universal acceptance. The Merovingian *triens* or *tremissis* was equal to the third of a Byzantine *solidus;* but it was not a commercial currency, nor does there seem to have been any real metallic standard for coins anterior to those established about 1250–80 A.D. by the Florentines and Venetians, who adopted and maintained them from motives of financial convenience. The concurrent introduction into France, under Louis IX., of gold pieces of broad fabric, probably on a much more restricted scale, divided Europe into two numismatic schools, of which one followed the French, the other the Italian prototype; and it is singular enough that in France itself certain feudal centres preferred the latter.

The first direct initiative in the more modern school of European numismatic art was received from Northern Germany, whence, through the Franks, and perhaps the Lombards to some extent, the new influence spread to Italy, the Low Countries, France, and ultimately the Iberian peninsula. We have to ascribe to the multifarious fruits of trade, navigation,

and travel, so largely promoted by religious fanaticism, and the unforeseen outcome of the successive expeditions to the Holy Land for the recovery of the Sepulchre, the increased call for the means of exchange on a better footing; and the purity and undeviating weight of the mediæval Italian gold was primarily due to its competition with the high Oriental standard.

The text which follows, with the matter occupying the latter part of the volume, and the very full information collected in our previous work, should altogether suffice to afford inquirers a tolerably clear and complete view of what, so far as English readers were concerned, remained till recently a very imperfectly known department of numismatic history. English scholars are obviously competent to study, through publications in various languages, the progress and particulars of the coinages of each locality and region within the European frontier; but the present undertaking is more especially calculated for the service of the majority, who possess neither the leisure nor the inclination to make themselves masters of the facts, here broadly and methodically stated, by the laborious perusal of a polyglot library of monographs and other treatises.

The marvellous number and extent of the persons and places formerly entitled to issue their own money, and the disappearance or obscurity of the clues to identification in many cases, have combined with imperfect lines of succession and broken or fragmentary records of numismatic policy and enterprise to em-

barrass the labours of the most indefatigable among the Continental workers, and to compel them to leave certain series with *lacunæ* to be supplied hereafter; and this condition of affairs, which may be partly attributed to the loss of their archives by petty States and the committal of the obsolete coinages to the crucible, exists in the face of continuous research and continuous discussion.

The grand series of groups of numismatic production which the European Continental section of this work offers to our view forms a virtual sequel to the monetary history of Rome, and may be considered as commencing at the point where the coinage of the Western Empire, with the exception of the ephemeral exarchate of Ravenna, determines. During centuries we have to note the lingering influence of the masters of the ancient world in the imitation of their types, subject to such changes as modified political and religious conditions insensibly accomplished, and at the same time necessitated. A mainly new nomenclature and symbolism for the coins themselves arose, but classical history or mythology was recollected in such forms as Hercules, Phœbus, Achilles, Julius Cæsar, Augustus, Cicero, Theodore, Demetrius, Alexander, Michael, Philippus, Constantinus, Octavius, occasionally disguised by linguistic postulates. Until the Frankish authority was more or less consolidated in the person of Charlemagne about the close of the eighth century of our era, there was no central power in succession to that of Rome on the Continent, nor

can it be said that that prince exercised more than a suzerainty over a great part of the dominions titularly comprehended within his empire. Already in the sixth century the enormous volume of money, usually designated Merovingian, began to issue from a large number of mints in the Low Countries, France, and Spain, while the more immediate followers in the footsteps of the Romans, and the temporary inheritors of that soil, the Goths and the Lombards, produced a currency in all metals (though sparingly in gold) partly on the Roman and partly on the Teutonic model. The imperial system soon resolved itself numismatically into the enjoyment of the right of striking money by a numerous body of autonomous states under the sanction of the Frankish or German Cæsar; and in France, where the jurisdiction of the emperors was soon lost, and in the Peninsula, where it only revived with the rise of the great Spanish monarchy in the single person of Charles V., the crown long remained too weak to preclude the great feudatories from having their own mints. Nevertheless, there is of the Frankish and other dynasties, which successively swayed the fortunes of Germany, the Netherlands, and Italy, a notable assemblage of coins of all kinds, either of pure imperial origin or with mixed types, exhibiting the names of cities or princes in conjunction with the name and cognisance of the superior lord.

This principle survived down to the last days of the old *régime*. But there were exceptions to its observance. The Italian republics, for the most part, re-

nounced the pretensions of the emperor or king of the Romans in this respect at an early date, and Savoy, the Holy See, Florence, and Milan, the two Sicilies, and other powers followed a similar course. The admission of the claim had its real or supposed advantages; it was an acknowledgment of vassalage, but it was a plea for protection on the part of the minor governments from their more powerful neighbours. This point is treated more at large in our other work, and we may now proceed to furnish an outline of the numismatic history of the European Continent, with the premonitory notice that a great deal of further information may be found in that volume.

Starting with WESTPHALIA, we meet with many important coin-centres, such as Cologne, Munster, Paderborn, Salm, Bronkhorst, and Dortmund, as well as the scarce and ephemeral currency of Walmoden-Gimborn; and in conclusion there is, though extending over a short period (1806–13), the somewhat prolific coinage, in all metals, of Jerome Napoléon, king of Westphalia, who had previously, as Grand-Duke of Berg, issued various pieces with his portrait and titles.

In the RHENISH PROVINCES there are the Duchies of Cleves, Juliers, and Berg (subsequently united to Saxony), the two branches of the house of Hohenzollern, and the very important town of Aix-la-Chapelle or Aachen, the residence and burial-place of Charlemagne. The Counts and Dukes of Nassau, the

Counts of Schaumburg-Lippe, the Princes of Waldeck, the Counts of Sayn, the Counts of Lichtenstein, and the Archbishops of Mayence, all struck an abundance of money in each metal at Wiesbaden and elsewhere.

The coinage of the undivided landgraviat of Hesse commences with bracteates with the Hessian lion, and develops into a rich volume of currency in gold, silver, and copper, the thaler first appearing in 1502. The earlier specimens are particularly scarce. Within this territory were several feudal mints, including Isenburg and Oppenheim.

Frankfort-on-the-Main was once the Frankish capital, and continued during centuries to enjoy political and monetary autonomy; we have numismatic examples from the eleventh to the nineteenth century (1866). The absolute right to strike its own money was conferred in 1428.

The margraviat, afterward grand-duchy, of Baden, of which there were two branches down to 1771, is less remarkable on account of its own coinage, which dates from an early period, than as the seat of several independent mints, of which we may mention Mannheim, Ulm, Leiningen, Freiburg-in-Brisgau, Breisach, &c., almost all of which issued currency anterior to that of the margraviat itself; the earlier specimens of Baden, especially the gold, are difficult to procure.

Würtemburg, at first a county, then (1492) a duchy, and finally (1806) a kingdom, with which, till 1792, was incorporated the countship of Mont-

beliard, presents a large body of material to the collector or student in all metals from the fourteenth century; there was a separate coinage for Montbeliard in the lower values; the full titles on the money describe the sovereign as Count or Duke of Würtemburg, Count of Montbeliard, and Lord of Heidenheim. The gold ducats of Duke Ulric are varied through the course of his protracted reign (1498–1550); there are many pieces interesting for the costume.

We call attention to the extensive area of research and selection existing in BAVARIA and the PALATINATE, a region interesting in connection with the Thirty Years' War and its incidence, and the union of the Palsgraf Frederic with Elizabeth Stuart. Gardiner's "History of the War," 1874, should be consulted. It is here that we have to place the not very extensive but peculiarly interesting money of the princely family of the Fuggers, dating from 1534, when Charles V. accorded to Anton Fugger, Herr von Weissenhorn, who died in 1560, the right of striking his own coins; these have usually on the reverse the imperial titles and symbol.

When we enter SAXONY, there is a great difficulty in emerging without entering into an amount of detail which is at present impossible; for the partition of the province among several reigning houses, and the concurrent existence of a large number of independent feudal and urban centres, have combined to accumulate a store of numismatic records alike unsurpassed in extent and variety, in historical value,

and in fidelity and excellence of portraiture. The recognisable coinage dates from the tenth century. The modern kingdom, dating from 1806, is, of course, only a portion of what was embraced within the same geographical term. There were the separate states of Saxe-Weimar (subdivided into Old, New, and Middle Weimar, and Weimar-Jena), Saxe-Coburg, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Hilburghausen, Saxe-Saalfeld, and Saxe-Altenberg, each of which had its monetary system, subject to periodical political changes. In Saxe-Meiningen we have the coinage of the Counts of Henneberg, to which belong rare early thalers.

We mention ANHALT, of which there were formerly four branches, SCHWARZBURG and SCHWARZBURG-RUDOLSTADT, and REUSS *Senior* and *Junior* (each throwing out various branches), of which any single division would suffice to engage the exclusive attention and resources of a collector, and pass on to BRUNSWICK, which resembles Saxony in the subdivisions of the ruling family, but far less so in the minor places of coinage. There were at one time six branches, of which one, Lüneburg, acquired signal distinction as the origin of the present royal house of Great Britain through a double tie—Henry the Lion and Elizabeth of Bohemia. The grand numismatic monuments of this state, more especially of the Lüneburg line, ought, however, to command interest apart from any collateral consideration.

There is a good deal of instructive matter to be gleaned from the coinages of points within the Bruns-

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wick frontier, particularly Göttingen, Goslar, Hildesheim, and East Friesland; and the same may be said when we approach the North, and take in succession OLDENBURG, which possesses curious early dated pieces; HOLSTEIN, with its three branches; the Hanse towns, particularly Lübeck and Hamburg, the latter once the seat of the great Von Hovel family, whose castle may be seen on its coins; MECKLENBURG, permanently associated in its undivided state with the illustrious Wallenstein, and now forming two duchies, Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz; and finally POMMERN or POMERANIA, with a group of towns on the Baltic coast —Wismar, Rostock, Wolgast—round which a religious curiosity has gathered, as the seats in old times of a nature-worship symbolised on their money, and common to many other places.

BRANDENBURG is a name borne by a margraviat and electorate, as well as by a margraviat in Franconia, and by the branches of Anspach and Bayreuth. With the three last are connected series of coins dating back to an early period, and in all metals. The electorate was the germ of the modern kingdom of Prussia through the acquisition of Brandenburg, in 1415, by Friedrich von Hohenzollern, Burggraf of Nürnberg, by purchase from the Emperor Sigismund. Long prior to the existence of Prussia as a kingdom, it was in a contracted sense a duchy subject to Poland; the Dukes of Massow, whose capital was Warsaw, and of whose money, struck at Culm, in Western Prussia, we have no direct knowledge, and later on the Teutonic knights, who have left

ample monetary records (1195–1572), occupied the remainder.

In or about 1525, Albrecht, Margraf of Brandenburg, having become Grand Master and seized the possessions of the Order, was made Duke of Prussia under Polish suzerainty; but in 1657 this territory vested absolutely in Brandenburg, and so remained till 1701, when Wilhelm III. assumed the crown of Prussia. It was while he was Margraf, and in 1681, that, having acquired a settlement on the coast of Guinea, he made the maiden essay of the Prussians in colonising it, and striking money for its use. His money as Margraf is common, but as king (1701–1713) is peculiarly scarce; nor is that of his successor, above all the gold, easily obtained.

The coins of Frederick the Great, except the inauguration ducat of 1740 and the thaler of 1750, are abundant, and those of the later monarchs call for no special comment. Numismatically speaking, the changes in territorial distribution after the events of 1815 aggrandised Prussia at the expense of Saxony.

Silesia, Mansfeld, and Stolberg, of which the two latter formed themselves into branches, were down to the end of the last century, or early years of this, prolific sources of monetary production. On Stolberg the stag, and on Mansfeld St. George and the Dragon, were immovable types. Both houses produced a distinguished soldier in the Thirty Years' War; but the former has to boast the permanent literary claims of the two brothers whose names are familiar in the German poetical annals of the

eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The coinage of Silesia was various, according to the locality whence it proceeded, with the exception of that of the ancient dukes. At Liegnitz the early kings of Poland struck money for Polish Prussia, including gold florins of the Italian type.

Austria, first a margraviat, afterward a duchy and archduchy, and ultimately an empire, struck bracteates in primitive times of very numerous types. The Florentine gold pattern was adopted by Albrecht I. (1298–1308); and we owe to this source the earliest dated thalers, executed with great care and skill, particularly that of Maximilian and Mary of Burgundy, 1479, of which there are three distinct varieties, and the two of 1516 and 1518, with the older bust. There are also magnificent gold coins in this series. With Austria are connected by political ties the Tyrol, Carinthia, Moravia, Istria, Styria, Dalmatia, Bohemia, Hungary, Transylvania, nearly all of which had been originally sources of autonomous coinage on a large scale, and, in fact, offer to our consideration numismatic examples equal in character and interest to any which Austria itself possesses.

Hungary still retains its own currency; Bohemia and Transylvania did so till the last century. The Madonna and Child is an almost invariable Hungarian type, and on some of the modern pieces for that part of the empire the peculiar form of the Magyar crown may be observed.

The Swiss Coinage leaves little to be desired in regard to its extent, duration, and variety. It is

divisible into imperial, feudal, cantonal, and federal. Historically, the series of early money of bracteate or semi-bracteate fabric is perhaps the most important; but the pieces most attractive in aspect belong to the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, although the cantonal and federal coinage of the last and even present century is handsome and well executed, and occasionally exhibits views of the city to which it refers. Some of the ancient coins, as the St. Gallen plappart of 1424, the Bern thaler of 1494, and the gold dicken of 1492, are of signal rarity, a characteristic which is shared by several large silver pieces of later date, like the celebrated thaler struck by Cardinal Schinner, with his portrait as Bishop of Sitten.

The coinage of POLAND, traceable to very rudimentary and barbarous beginnings, remained without great perceptible improvement till the reign of Sigismund I. (1506–48), who gave a powerful impetus to this feature in the national life and character, and from whose time dates that advance in fabric and style which continued to the end. The earlier numismatists apparently enjoyed a very imperfect acquaintance with the volume and variety of this extensive and important series.

Down to a certain period a considerable portion of Prussia belonged to the dukes and kings of Poland, and special money was struck for East Prussia, as well as for Livonia, acquired by marriage from the Jagellon dynasty. The first gold of Polish origin seems to be that of the Florentine type struck at

Liegnitz, in Prussian Silesia, for Prussia. Of coins in that metal for Prussia proper, we have seen nothing prior to the reign of Sigismund II. Augustus. The earliest thaler (= 30 Polish groschen) was struck in 1564 for Livonia. The smaller silver denominations in this group of currency are the most abundant; the older thalers in fine state, and well-preserved copper, are of extreme rarity, and the ducat and its multiples are not common. Those of John III. Sobieski present, like his thalers, a life-like portrait of that celebrated personage. The latest autonomous Polish piece which we have is a six-zloty of 1794.

Russia was of course far behind the Poles in every respect, and down to the reign of Peter the Great had no coinage worthy of a great nation. The cradles of metallic currency, when the system of bartering skins was gradually abandoned, had been Kiev and Novgorod. An effort was made by one of the dukes of Muscovy at the end of the fifteenth century to introduce Hungarian gold types, but nothing was then accomplished, nor was the alleged mission of Walter Basbee, assay-master of the Goldsmiths' Company, in 1608, to the court of the Czar, on the part of James I. of Great Britain, in order to assist in the reform of the coinage, more successful; and so far as we are aware, the coinage of Peter, 1704, was the first essay toward a general reform of the system, that of Alexie or Alexis Michailovitch, 1654, amounting to scarcely more than an isolated experiment. But Russia used to a very considerable extent in the seventeenth

century the money of Germany and the Netherlands, and even Italy, with countermarks rendering it current. Peter the Great lived to see the circulating medium of his country placed nearly on an equality with that of more westerly states, and his successors have certainly in this respect, so far as the fabric and workmanship are concerned, maintained the standard. There are many rare and little-known patterns of Peter himself, Catherine I., Peter II., and other sovereigns of the Russias, which have lately realised considerable amounts at foreign sales. The rouble of Peter I. (1725) and that of Catherine I. of same date, with head to left, are considered scarce.

Of the Danubian Provinces, Moldavia, Wallachia, Roumania, Bulgaria, Bosnia, and Servia, the numismatic annals have varied with their political vicissitudes. Some of the money goes back to the eleventh century, and much of it to the fourteenth. The early coins of Bogdana bear, as a symbol or type, the mystical bull's head, so common in Germany and in the Baltic district. The fabric and style of the more ancient coins of Bulgaria and Servia are Byzantine; the Servian currency of the fourteenth century is partly copied from Greek models, both of the ordinary and of the concave form, and partly follows the lines of the Venetian grosso called *matapan*. Since 1867 these states have been erected into autonomous governments, with the exception of Bosnia, which remains under Austrian jurisdiction.

A sufficient sketch of the monetary system of the

LATIN EMPIRE established after the Fourth Crusade, and of those of modern GREECE and TURKEY IN EUROPE, may be found elsewhere. The expedition of the Venetians and their allies to the Holy Land *viâ* Constantinople effected in the whole of Eastern Europe a political revolution, of which the fruits lasted in some instances during centuries; and this event laid the foundation of the colonial currency of Venice for the territories which the republic thus acquired in 1204.

The NORTHERN KINGDOMS, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, have always possessed a certain characteristic individuality, distinct even from those countries by which they are more immediately bounded. From what has been said in another place, it is easily inferable that the numismatic fortunes of these three kingdoms have been strongly and strangely influenced, not so much by external agencies as by civil or international disagreements and struggles. From time to time the balance of power was shifted between Sweden and Denmark, both of which have weakened and impoverished themselves in bygone days by interference in foreign wars, while Norway has never achieved any sensible share of importance either in its government or in its coinage, the Norwegian money having been at all times for the most part of Danish or Swedish origin. The archaic coins of this entire region, of which none can perhaps be assigned to a period anterior to the tenth century, appear to have been modelled on the Anglo-Saxon types of Ethelred II.; a find of these silver *sterlings* in Norway some few years since led to

the hypothesis that they might have been struck there. But the Danish and Swedish mints soon learned to emulate the best productions of other countries; and the very reasons which have caused the currencies of these two realms to descend to us as a broken and irregular record constitute in our eyes an additional attraction, as they were the means of calling into existence an unusually large body of money of necessity, and of pieces issued by usurpers or competitors for the throne. Of late years the attention of collectors has been drawn in a greatly increased measure to the Scandinavian provinces on two grounds: the curiosity of the more ancient monuments and their connection with England, and the fine workmanship and historical interest of those belonging to more recent times. Sweden associates with itself the names of Gustavus Adolphus, his daughter Christina, the great minister Oxenstierna, Charles XII., as well as the singular phenomenon offered in the ponderous copper plate-money of the eighteenth century, and the series of very rare early gold money.

In entering the Low Countries we soon become sensible that we are on ground which has been trodden by a remarkable succession of rulers, and which, looking at their comparatively limited area, exhibit a residual assemblage of currencies belonging to dynasts, fiefs, towns, and provinces, of which nearly all have passed into the domain of history, of which many are obscure, and of which a few have left only numismatic vouchers for their existence. Throughout Belgium and Holland

formerly flourished numerous powerful feudatories practically independent of the imperial authority, prosperous cities and towns, almost equally autonomous, and a host of minor seigneurs, of whom all have transmitted to us proofs of their importance, wealth, and taste in a huge volume of obsolete money in the various metals, of infinitely diversified types, of countless denominations; and each *trouvaille* adds to the aggregate and to our knowledge of the several series.

There are many excellent compilations and monographs dealing with the coinages of the Northern and Southern Netherlands. Of the latter, the prominent divisions in ancient times were Brabant, Namur, Liège, Limburg, Reckheim, Luxemburg, Flanders, Hainault, Artois, Saint Pol, and Boulogne. These fiefs or states constituted sources during a very lengthened period of great numismatic activity. Liège was not only a busy episcopal mint, but (with Maestricht) a very early and leading one of the emperors. Loos and Rummen, eventually merged in the See of Liège, produced a variety of money in all metals, of which some is of extreme rarity. Brabant, Luxemburg, and Flanders, under their respective dukes or counts, attained in their coinage a wealth and splendour absolutely regal.

In the north we have the great feudal houses of s'Heerenberg and Bronkhorst in Gronsfeld, the latter associated with the illustrious family of Brederode, with many other baronial and seigniorial centres, of which it is necessary to specify the Counts of Holland and West Friesland, the Counts and Dukes of Gueldres,

and the Bishops of Utrecht, with each of which are connected elaborate monetary systems of long duration and signal importance. The coinages of Holland (county) and West Friesland, as well as that of the See of Utrecht, commence abruptly, and we have evidently a good deal yet to learn about the products of the parent mints of these districts. By the Amersfoort Find (1894) some additions were made to our acquaintance with the gold currency of Gueldres; but there were almost certainly coins of Holland and Utrecht prior to any at present identifiable; the sumptuous gold florins of the latter may be commended to notice.

Besides the feudal currencies of the Netherlands there are those of the United Provinces, of the Batavian Republic, of the Brabantine Revolution of 1790, of the Austrian, Spanish, and English rulers, and of the kingdoms of Holland, the Netherlands, and the Belgians, without reckoning a vast Dutch colonial series extending over two centuries and a half, and at one period emanating independently from each province. It is unnecessary to point out the voluminous and intricate monetary policy arising out of the unwieldy and decentralised imperial system, and appurtenant to a scheme of local government by vassals of the Crown often as powerful as the Crown itself; but with the formation of Holland into a kingdom in 1806 the old *régime* may be considered to have been brought to an end, as the subsequent changes in 1816 and 1830 were matters of detail. Throughout the less remote epoch, from the sixteenth century downward, the most attrac-

tive and superb examples of numismatic art abound. The Leicester series is apt to be interesting to English folk; it extends from 1586 to 1659, or later (long after the Earl's death), and consists of the thaler and its divisions of various dates. The coins of William the Silent and of William Henry of Orange, afterward William III. of Great Britain, command attention.

ITALY possesses manifold titles to our special consideration as having been the cradle of the ancient Roman coinage, as having passed through a succession of political revolutions, each of which left its numismatic traces and lessons behind it for our instruction, as the seat of the alleged patrimony of St. Peter, which was to outlive all revolutions, and embracing within its frontiers Venice and Florence, and as the only region where the finest productions of German medallic art were eclipsed. Subsequently to the fall of the Western Empire the invasions in turn of the Ostrogoths, the Lombards, the Franks, and the Germans, gradually tended to bring the Italian coinage in its fabric and feeling into closer touch with that of the Scandinavian and Teutonic communities of Northern Europe. The Ostrogoths themselves had largely adopted the monetary style and module of the nation which they entered the peninsula to replace; but those who came after them, especially the Franks and the Germans, changed the prevailing type, and substituted that which formed the standard one throughout Western Europe during many centuries. The Ostrogothic and Lombard series, the former in all metals, the latter in gold and silver

only, are of considerable extent, and embrace certain examples in gold of extreme rarity and commercial value. The most usual pieces are the Gothic copper *nummi* and the Lombard silica and half-silica in poor silver; but the latter people also established their rule in Sicily and Naples, where they retained their ground longer than in the north. A fair account of the Italian numismatic annals of this period of transition is to be found in our former volume, as well as in the extensive additions to it in course of publication in Messrs. Spinks' monthly *Numismatic Circular*.

We have elsewhere shown how the aggrandisement of the Frankish power under Pepin of Herstal and his son Charles or Charlemagne prepared the way, through the decentralising and enfeebling action of a political growth or structure too heavy for its base, for the rise and consolidation of the Holy See on the one hand, and of the republics, especially that of Venice, on the other. Already in the fifth century the Venetians had laid the first stone of that wondrous constitutional edifice which was to witness the rise and evanescence of so many other states; and in the ninth we may say that the Republic and the Papacy were the two powers in the peninsula most independent of the imperial authority.

Many other communities, as we learn from Sismondi, formed themselves by degrees into virtually autonomous governments resting on a federal basis, and preserved this freedom for a longer or shorter period according to local or other circumstances; but those which had

risen by commerce survived those which had risen by mere force of arms. Eventually there was a reflux of imperialism, which in the eighteenth century absorbed nearly all these states in succession, and even Venice fell at last in the Great Revolution.

The Papacy remains; but its temporal jurisdiction has passed away for ever; and the whole of the land, which once included the most marvellous nationality (for Venice was nothing less), and gave birth on Corsican soil to the greatest soldier in the world, is united under one sovereign and one monetary system, which has been recently disimproved by the introduction of a nickel coinage—one of the vilest inventions of numismatic man.

The almost numberless currencies and descriptions of money in use among the mediæval Italians and Sicilians constitute not only an ample volume of historically, artistically, and technically important archives, but one infinitely diversified by the force of local conditions or political exigencies. The most singular anomaly connected with this portion of our subject is the slenderness of the interest attendant on the lengthened and enormous series of coins in every metal and of the most varied denominations issued in the names of the Doges of Venice between the twelfth and the eighteenth centuries, owing to the monotony of the type and the poverty of style. Possibly it suited the views of a commercial people to maintain a uniformity of pattern intelligible to the trader of every country; but through all that long lapse of time we meet, except in the *Oselle*,

with the fewest possible variations of legend and design. Even the Florentines, who were greatly indebted to trade as a source of wealth and strength, did not study this principle prior to the Medici period; but in Milan, Naples, Mantua, Ferrara, Monteferrato, Saluzzo, Savoy, and other coin-striking centres, the desire seems long to have been to outvie one another in the splendour and variety of the money, which remains in our hands to-day a precious inheritance for all lovers of what is beautiful.

In Sicily and Naples the gold Merovingian types for some time prevailed, and were superseded under the Normans by gold money, often with bilingual (Arabic and Latin) legends, and a bronze currency which followed the lines of the heavy Greek coinage in that metal for Syracuse and other localities, just as we have observed that the Ostrogothic bronze *nummi* were modelled on the old Roman system. Of all the productions of this region down to the Renaissance, those in the lowest metal strike us as the most curious; and, indeed, the two Sicilies formed a region where, to the last, special attention seems to have been paid to this class of medium, and where we meet with a surprising number of coins in unbroken sequence from Hellenic times, but unhappily not too often in an irreproachable state. It strikes us as more probable that Sicily borrowed the idea of the heavier bronze (ten *grani* or *tornesi*) from the long anterior Russian five-kopek pieces than from England. Alike at Beneventum and Salerno, under the Lombards, the Archangel Michael appears as a tutelary symbol.

The reader must be invited to refer for fuller particulars of all the Italian coinages, and of the rarities in the several series, to our larger book, and the authorities there cited, collaterally with the new facts enumerated below, and in our papers in the *Antiquary* on the Coins of Venice, 1884. The special *desiderata* in the Sicilian series are indicated by us in another place.

The autonomous coinage of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem at Rhodes, Candia, and Malta has found a capable historian in M. Furse, whose large monograph deserves to be better known to collectors. It is a series abounding in fine examples of workmanship and portraiture, but which offers many almost insuperable difficulties to the aspirant to completeness, as some of the earlier pieces are of the first order of rarity, and nearly all the silver and copper occur, as a rule, either poorly struck or in a condition which the French describe as *laid*. The early gold sequins (of Venetian type) are common enough, with a few notable exceptions; but they are so carelessly executed as to be uninviting. The later heavy gold is of frequent occurrence, but is worth only its weight in metal. The most covetable acquisitions are the large silver *scudi* and the earlier copper in fine state.

France presents to our view a sufficiently extensive and intricate monetary system, though far less so than Germany or the Low Countries, inasmuch as the rights of coinage enjoyed by a very large body of feudatories throughout the Middle Ages, and down to the firm establishment of the House of Bourbon on the throne,

were taken back by the Crown at an earlier period than in the two divisions of Europe just mentioned, leaving only the regal currency for our consideration. It has been explained at some length elsewhere that the volume of old French money in our hands owes its magnitude in part to the almost innumerable varieties of type and issue due to political exigencies, from the long dedication of a separate coinage to certain provinces of the kingdom, as well as to a host of baronial or seigniorial tenants, and also to the personal caprice of the sovereign or his moneyers; and this statement is particularly true of the protracted reigns of Charles VI. and Louis XI. (1380–1461).

It is readily observable that in this highly interesting series we pass through successive stages: the Merovingian era, when the prevailing metal was gold; the Carolingian, when the currency was almost exclusively silver; the Capetian, when we meet with little beyond billon of careless execution and a sparing supply of gold, commencing with the latter portion of the reign of Louis IX.; the Valesian (1328–1589), in which the gold becomes more plentiful, the silver is somewhat improved, and copper of good workmanship is introduced; and the Bourbon one, which, in point of fabric, character, and execution, easily excels all that preceded. Yet, looking at the wealth, greatness, and power of France, and her opportunities of employing the best engravers and the most efficient machinery, we desist from a survey of her whole numismatic life with a feeling of surprise and disappoint-

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ment. We take up the Frankish deniers and oboles of Charlemagne and his successors to the end of the tenth century, and place them side by side with their equivalents under the Capetian rulers and French artificers, and the contrast is impressive enough; the latter constitute an unsatisfactory and repellent array of poorly engraved and struck examples on billon blanks, originally washed with a solution of silver or white metal, but as a rule divested by hard wear of every trace of the plating process.

It is not till we arrive at the great reforms accomplished under Louis IX., about the middle of the thirteenth century, that we meet with any creditable specimens of numismatic art, and that after a lengthened interval of sterile monotony there comes not only a new era in the silver coinage, but the singular phenomenon of gold types wholly differing from those almost simultaneously instituted by Italy and Germany, where the Venetian or Florentine models prevailed. The broad pieces struck under the authority of Louis about 1250 did undoubted honour to those concerned in producing them; and his successors of the Capetian and Valesian lines maintained the character and standard of this branch of the national coinage, which lasted down to the middle of the seventeenth century, when it gave place to the *louis-d'or* and its divisions and multiples in 1640, in common with the silver currency —the *écu d'argent* and its fractions—the copper remaining unchanged, till the following reign substituted the *liard* and other denominations.

Meanwhile, the feudal series, which must be understood to comprise the vassals of the French crown of all grades and all measures of subservience, including Burgundy, Normandy, Brittany, Lorraine, and other grand fiefs, whose allegiance was more or less nominal, had swollen to a bulk which far surpassed that of the monarchy, and which embraced within its limits productions transcending in personal or in artistic interest those of the suzerain. Perhaps, indeed, it may be advanced as a general proposition that the redeeming features of the French system lie outside the direct dynastic succession, and are to be sought in the feudal, Franco-Italian, Franco-Spanish, and Napoleonic coins, apart from a group of *essais* or patterns of superior style by Briot and others, which the Government usually rejected.

Altogether, we perceive in this case a vast assemblage of metallic monuments, which, as a special collection, are decidedly undesirable, from the unusual poverty of their character and condition, but among which it is not difficult to make choice of a considerable assortment of specimens in all the branches—the earlier colonial inclusive—equally attractive and interesting from many points of view, and in some instances associated with great historical names.

In turning over the pages of such works as those by Hoffmann and Poey d'Avant, the student or amateur is apt to form a more favourable idea of the French series than a personal examination of ordinary pieces will probably give, as the engravings are derived to a large

extent from examples in the Bibliothèque, or flatter the originals. The representative or eclectic plan is by far the best and safest here; to become complete is an impossibility; and the collector has the option of starting with the Merovingian and Carolingian money, which is Frankish or Franco-German rather than French, or with the true national series from Charles le Chauve, or even from Hugues Capet. The gold or the copper money alone would constitute an agreeable study and an ample collection.

We have, in conclusion, to deal with the IBERIAN PENINSULA, a region subject to very peculiar numismatic as well as political experiences, and on whose soil many different races have left their footprints and their influence without affecting France, except on its southern frontier.

The earliest known coinage of Spain belongs to peoples who were not Spaniards in blood, language, or religion. The Greek, the Carthaginian, the Roman, the Moor, the Arab, struck coins of the types with which they were familiar in their own lands, before the Spaniards existed as a nation, and even before the states which were to be united under Ferdinand and Isabella were recognised.

The earliest monetary system of Spain is divisible into several broad sections: (i.) Celtiberian, Phœnician or Punic, Greek and Roman; (ii.) colonial, municipal and urban, and regal. The last category is susceptible of sub-classification into heads answering to the successive political centralising and decentralising movements

which the country from time to time underwent, until the final union under Charles V. (rather than under Ferdinand and Isabella), if it did not reduce the currency to a uniform standard and type, placed it on a more national footing. But long subsequently to the accession of the House of Arragon the various provinces and towns of Spain retained, as elsewhere, the right of coinage; an extensive catalogue of localities occurs in Hazlitt's "List of Mints" where money was struck independently of the crown, and down to the present century some of the outlying portions of the kingdom preserved the memory and recognition of their former numismatic autonomy in special types and legends sanctioned by the central authority. From the remotest times the output of urban currencies must have been very large.

M. Heiss enters at much greater length, of course, than in a general survey of the present kind is possible, into the political distribution of the Peninsula among different classes of townships and other local governments, accounting for the extensive numismatic remains of various characters which have descended to us in connection with this region. It is evident that the Greek and Roman influence survived here much longer than in France, and that, even when it became feebler and fainter, the inhabitants of Spain, instead of receiving lessons from the Western and Northern invaders and civilisers of the Gaulish territory, fell in this as in other respects under the sway of the powerful African element, which so largely contributed to promote their national culture.

The early Spanish coinage is mainly concerned with the large and important provinces of Granada, Arragon, Léon, Castile, Cataluña, Valencia, and Navarre, all of which originally possessed and retained independent monetary rights. Down to a comparatively recent period, the two last-named divisions of Spain struck their own currency; and after the accession of Henry I. of Navarre to the French throne in 1589 as Henry IV., coins were issued by France for Lower, and by Spain for Upper Navarre. The plentiful numismatic remains of Léon and Castile subsequently to their union, and of those states posterior to the marriage of Ferdinand of Arragon with Isabella or Elizabeth of Castile, are sufficiently well known, and comprise a great number of examples of unmistakable individuality. The productions of Navarre and Valencia are far less common, and among them we find interesting pieces, especially those with the portraits of the house of D'Albret. For Cataluña we have a special coinage down to the reign of Isabella II.

Although that ancient Moorish dominion enters much less conspicuously into the later political history of the country, the monetary fortunes of Granada participated in the striking changes and developments which this part of the Peninsula experienced from the first settlement of the Carthaginians there, and the foundation of Carthego Nova (Cartagena) in the third century before our era. All that is manly and noble in Spanish life and archæology owed their existence to African inspiration and energy; the Moorish blood and intellect

raised almost every grand monument which we see or of which we hear; and the famous Alhambra was at one time, like the mediæval palace both in Eastern and Western Europe and in Asia, the royal residence, the seat of government, the prison, and the mint. Coins have descended to us bearing in their legends that they were struck in the Alhambra of Granada. In some other ways the Gothic element in Spain was influential for good, but not numismatically so, for the money of the Visigothic princes is merely a degraded form of the Merovingian or of the Byzantine patterns, and the first marked impulse toward an improvement in the fabric and execution of the currency of any part of the Peninsula seems to have come from Arragon, where, in the twelfth century, we meet with *dinheri* and *grossi*, exhibiting a long advance in the art of portraiture, and of good silver, chiefly from the mint at Barcelona. At the same time, Castile and Léon preserved the old billon money, slightly modified from Visigothic prototypes, and the Moorish gold pieces, on which, as we perceive from one engraved here, Alfonso VIII. about 1190 inserted in the field the letters *A L F* as a first step toward the establishment of a Castilian medium in that metal. In this, as in other parts of Europe, it was the middle of the fourteenth century which witnessed a general revival of art and taste, and Castile then took the lead under Pedro the Cruel (1350–68) in numismatic activity, so far as the institution of a gold coinage, including certain sumptuous pieces of high value, was concerned. The ordinary

escudi of this reign are tolerably abundant, and were probably struck in considerable numbers, a testimony to the growing national prosperity; but the multiples, no doubt, were destined for presentation, or for other than commercial purposes.

The consolidation of the Spanish monarchy and its temporary aggrandisement under Ferdinand and Isabella, Charles V., and Philip II. by maritime discovery and commercial enterprise, led to the present branch of the European coinage attaining and preserving during centuries a high rank and repute. The Spanish doubloon and piece of eight are familiar to all; but the collector who engages in the task of forming a cabinet of Spanish coins becomes aware that he has committed himself to a vast, multifarious, intricate, and costly series, which embraces the inheritance left to us by Celt, Carthaginian, Sueve, Goth, and Moor, modified by French and other foreign influences of later advent. The political and commercial supremacy of Spain scarcely outlived the days of Charles V., but the money issued under the authority of its rulers, while it was internally less varied, grew, and long remained under his immediate successors, and under the Bourbons, of enormous volume, and comprehended separate monetary systems, with Spanish types, for the possessions or dependencies in Europe and America. From 1580 to 1640 the kings of Spain struck coins for Portugal, which Philip II. had annexed or restored to his dominions. On the other hand, France struck coins for parts of Spain from 1642 to 1648, and from 1809 to 1813.

Elsewhere we have set out some of the prominent rarities and difficulties of the series under notice, and additional particulars occur in the *Numismatic Circular*. With these facts and suggestions to guide him, the student should have no fear of being unable to arrive at an approximate view of the subject, and the monumental works of Heiss are at hand to assist those whose aim it may be to enter into this section more exhaustively. We are not to overlook the occasional intimacy of political relations between England and the Peninsula in the marriages of Eleanor of Castile, John of Gaunt, and Philip II., and in the British possession of Gibraltar.

The coinages of Central and Southern America, not reckoning indigenous products prior to the Spanish epoch, have largely partaken of the nationality of the early conquerors, as they have been influenced by the constant political changes which have affected that vast region. In the respective metals, the *peso*, the *dollar*, and the *centavo* have always constituted the main currency; but money of necessity of all kinds has been an unfailing periodical incidence.

Portugal, in the first instance an integral portion of Spain, and erected into a county by Alfonso VI. of Castile (1078–1109) in favour of Henry of Burgundy, his son-in-law, in 1094, completes the numismatic survey which has been undertaken of the European states. From having been at the outset an appanage of the mother-kingdom, this government gradually acquired, in the same manner as Spain, and about the same

period, and retained during an even briefer term, a very distinguished place among the maritime and commercial communities of the Continent, and from the most obscure commencement (for there is no identifiable currency of Count Henry or of Affonso I. of Portugal) developed a rich and sumptuous monetary policy, which long survived the national greatness and power. Even down to the first half of the eighteenth century, when Portugal had lost nearly all her trade and her influence, the coinage continued to be of the same ambitious stamp as before, and comprised those heavy gold pieces which formerly obtained favour in Castile, United Spain, the Spanish Netherlands, and elsewhere, and which the Czars of Muscovy obtained as complimentary offerings to illustrious personages in the absence of any medium of the kind at home. Few who feel an interest in coins have failed to make acquaintance with these old relics of the past, balancing in the scales six or seven English sovereigns, and fast disappearing in the hands of refiners.

The earliest autonomous Portuguese coinage was modelled on that of the Moors, and followed Mahommedan denominations; these were the *marabotin*, the *maravedi di ouro*, the *medio*, the *methca*, the *pezante*, of some of which our knowledge is solely derived from documents. The gold *maravedi* was allied in type to the *dinhero* of Castile, already mentioned; and of all these, and other ancient monetary experiments, which passed successively out of use, an account is given elsewhere. We must satisfy ourselves on the present occa-

sion with stating that with Pedro the First, 1357–67, the currency began to improve in volume, fabric, and national costume; and this is another way of saying that the movement, which had had its first stimulus on French soil under Louis IX., and in Italy collaterally at Florence and Venice, made its influence sensible about a century later in Portugal, as it did in Germany, England, and Castile. The successors of Pedro I. carried on the work, which he assisted in promoting; and Duarte I. not only developed the gold currency, but substituted pure copper for the mixed metal hitherto employed for the lower values, thus anticipating nearly every other European state in a most useful reform. Between the middle of the fifteenth and that of the sixteenth century the increasing prosperity of the country, crowned by the important geographical achievements of its maritime explorers, brought the currency to the height of its variety, amplitude, and splendour; and it has been shown how the magnificent gold *portuguez* of Emmanuel (1495–1521) perpetuated in its legends the noble services performed by Bartolommeo Diaz and Vasco da Gama for their native land. Beyond this chronological limit the Portuguese numismatic annals never practically exhibited any real progress; but, on the other hand, while the national strength and rank steadily declined, the money betrayed no symptoms of narrower political and financial resources, unless we reckon as such the very frequent occurrence during the seventeenth century of countermarked pieces; and we observe down to the present century an abundance of beautiful ex-

amples of workmanship and design in all metals. One conspicuous characteristic, which should not surprise us in such a stronghold of the Papacy and its adjuncts, is the presence on the coins of all kinds of religious symbols and suggestions, bespeaking the staunch and fervid Catholicism of the people, which has outlived everything else except its natural associates, sloth, poverty, and crime.

The colonial series in this case is of exceptional extent and importance, and dates from the reign of Emmanuel. Very full information on these points is afforded in the Portuguese monographs by Fernandes and Aragao.

A very striking peculiarity in the monetary system of Portugal is the almost complete absence, as in Scotland, of the seigniorial and ecclesiastical elements, as the sole instance of a concession from the Crown to any person or corporation appears to be that accorded in 1128 by Affonso I. to the cathedral of Bracara, of which there exists a possible result or outcome in a coin reading *Civitas Bragæ*; and even this piece is of doubtful origin. A slight feature of English interest consists in the employment of the celebrated engraver Wyon by Maria II. da Gloria for the *coröa* of 1837 (perhaps the prototype of the Victorian coinage of 1837–39), and of the Birmingham mint about the same time (1820–30) for two pattern 10-reis elsewhere described. The heavy Portuguese copper may have been borrowed from England, from the two Sicilies, or from Russia; it lasted from about 1812 to 1830, and the scarcest piece is a pattern 40-reis of Dom Miguel, 1828, with his portrait.

VII

UNITED KINGDOM

The fourth and concluding division of the work is devoted to the coinage of those races which have successively occupied and governed the region now known as the United Kingdom. It is hardly requisite to mention that down to comparatively recent days this section embraced several numismatic systems more or less distinct from each other. England itself, from the second half of the tenth century, may be said to have possessed a single authorised regal coinage; but Scotland had its own money, at first autonomous and subsequently of independent type, till the union of the crowns; and even Ireland, the Isle of Man, and the Channel Islands have enjoyed intermittent or partial monetary privileges down to our own time.

The historical and artistic value, if not interest, of the British coinage sensibly declines after the death of Anne in 1714. The best period may perhaps be said to lie between the reigns of Edward III. and Charles II. With the House of Brunswick-Lüneburg, although foreign artists were generally employed to execute the work, the style becomes monotonous and

mechanical, and more so as we approach the long reign of George III.

This division readily lends itself to a distribution under the following heads or sections:—British Period, Anglo-Saxon Period, Anglo-Norman Period, the Plantagenets, the Tudors, the Stuarts, the Commonwealth and Protectorate, the Second Stuart Period, the Hanoverian Dynasty (and Anglo-Hanoverian series of coins), and the earlier Colonial currencies.

Notwithstanding the extensive, learned, and successful researches of Sir John Evans, the attribution of a vast family of money in a variety of metals, with rude types and destitute of any clues in the shape of names of rulers or of places of origin, must be considered as still on its trial, and as beset with the utmost difficulty and uncertainty. The coins usually termed British or Gaulish, on speculation or conjecture, may often have been struck in other and distant parts of Europe, and it is hardly probable that the Britons themselves produced a fraction of the numismatic remains ascribed to them by the older school of writers on this subject. One trustworthy criterion in allocating the pieces of so-called British or Gaulish fabric to their true *patria*, and so at all events narrowing the inquiry, may be the comparison of the Mediæval coinages of France, Germany, &c., with them, which would, no doubt, reveal the survival of local characteristics, and so assist in identifying a British or Gaulish piece as the original occupant of a German or even an Asiatic home. (See Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 98.)

It should be noted that the discovery of coins of this or any class *in situ* is not necessarily a sure test of local origin, since the wide acceptance of foreign currencies at a recognised rate in all commercial transactions, from a very early period, led to hoards and finds becoming of a composite or mixed character. This circumstance explains the discovery of Carolingian money in Britain side by side with Anglo-Saxon, and of a British or Gaulish coin in Jutland; and after all the hypotheses and theories which have been advanced on the subject, the appropriation of most of the anepigraphic currency, and even of some of the inscribed pieces, to British ground is little more than speculative.

The style and workmanship observable on the British and Gaulish money are to be distinctly traced through gradual stages of improvement, even so late as the ninth century, in the coinages of certain parts of the kingdom, particularly in the *sceattas* and *stycas* of Northumbria; and even in the lines of a penny of Offa of Mercia we discern the archaic germ in a refined form, while, on the other hand, some of the *sceatta* class, even of early date, are carefully engraved and have fairly good portraits. The artistic delineation of natural objects, or the successful transfer to a die of a borrowed type, was evidently beyond the grasp of the moneyers employed by the *reguli* of those times, as it had proved to the authors of the deplorable abortions produced in Britain both before and after the days of Cæsar.

One remarkable feature in the whole group of numismatic monuments of British or Celtic extraction is the

spirit of servile imitation which it breathes, as well as the absence of that religious sentiment which confers a character and an individuality on the Greek and Roman coinages; and this attribute equally belongs to the productions of the Anglo-Saxon mints, when the contemporary work on the Continent of Europe presented in a conspicuous manner such diplomatic types or symbols as the Temple, *Christiana Religio*, and *Dei Gratiâ* or *Domini Misericordiâ*, a survival of the interesting records of local cults and beliefs impressed on the circulating medium of the ancients. At the same time, the retention of the costume of the British coins on those of the later race may fortify our belief in the local origin of the former, from which the Anglo-Saxon pennies, *sceattæ* and *stycas* would thus be a natural evolution.

When we come to the inscribed series, we feel that we are treading on somewhat surer ground. Yet the fact is, that nearly all that we know about the money of this class bearing names, generally abbreviated if not corrupt, is that they are almost certainly of native parentage. Like the anepigraphic coins, they are of very unequal pretensions in respect to fabric and art, and while we read certain names or parts of names upon them, there is no direct or collateral clue to the region in which they were struck, or when the personage specified flourished. Sir John Evans may be right in supposing that the two classes ran side by side; but the workmanship is as unsafe a guide in fixing the chronological sequence as the place of discovery is in trying to arrive at the place of mintage.

The list of rulers is doubtless still incomplete; there are, so far as one can judge, traces of about seventeen or eighteen *reguli* who enjoyed, by virtue of a more or less ample dominion, the right of signing the money in a seigniorial or royal capacity. On some of the gold inscribed coins occur other initials, which may represent the moneyer or the mint, or both. The names which are least doubtful are—

Tasciovanus.	Andoco[mius ?].
Cunobeline, son of Tasciovanus.	Boduoc.
Epaticcus, brother of Cunobeline.	Vosii or Vosenos.
Verica.	Antedrigus.
Dubnovellaunus.	Suei.
Eppillus.	Amminus.
Commius or Tincommius.	Addedomaros.
	Cara or Carat.

Cara may represent Caradoc or Caractacus; but Cassivelaunus and Cadwallader, the two other chieftains most familiar to us by repute, do not seem to be known by coins, unless they are concealed under such tribal designations as *Segvo*, *Boduoc*, *Vosii*, &c. The Latinised forms of some of these appellations somewhat aggravate our perplexity; but in Dubnovellaunus we seem to have a sort of allied termination to that of the better known personage. We appear to be debarred from supposing that the coins issued under the authority of these and other *reguli* (such as the celebrated Galgacus) are latent in the uninscribed series, since they would belong not merely to the later period of British history, but to a date anterior to the evident decline in numismatic art.

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Of the mints we seem to hear nothing beyond Richborough, Silchester, Verulam, Colchester, Cirencester, the place apparently indicated by the abbreviated form *Sego*, the capital (?) of the Boduni, probably intended in the *Bodu* of coins, to which probably may be added Canterbury, if not London. But if the so-called Merovingian or Merwing monetary system found favour on the English side of the Channel, the natural result would be that every local centre, however inconsiderable, struck its own coins: and such a law might, as in the case of the large family of Merovingian products, readily facilitate numberless and infinitesimal variations and gradations of type and style.

There is valid evidence that, wherever the coins were fabricated, the authorities learned the utility or necessity of instituting by degrees some more or less strict regulations in regard to the weight of the money, and that there was a well-understood divisional principle of moieties and thirds or quarters—one borrowed from the later Roman *solidi*; and a comparison of specimens, allowing for wear and tear, supports the view that what may be taken to be the money of the middle and best period was adjusted with tolerable care to the appointed standard. The Jersey find of 1820 consisted of Gaulish rather than British money, and of that in silver of low alloy; the two classes which occurred weighed respectively about 100 and 25 grs. The British metrological system would be borrowed from Gaul.

It is perhaps not usually recognised or realised to the full extent, that a monetary system prevailed in

Southern Britain from the third century B.C. to the fifth A.D., varying and fluctuating in its character and execution between an approximately artistic style in the inscribed money and the most degraded barbarism in a large proportion of the uninscribed. There was a sufficient lapse of time at any rate to account for all the known varieties of type; and it is now understood that, although the celebrated gold *stater* of Philip of Macedon was a favourite object of the copyists in Gaul and Britain, the engravers there resorted to many other models.

We have referred to the uncertainty attendant on the settlement of the original *provenance* of many of the uninscribed British coins, as well as of those in the inscribed series, from the habitual absence of any token which we are able to recognise as a mint-mark or note of place. The more or less uniform restriction, however, of certain inscribed coins, when they occur, to a particular district or zone, may not only be taken for what it is independently worth, but for its analogical virtue in encouraging and justifying the application of the same criterion to the much larger anepigraphic collection in our hands, and consequently in claiming a British origin for a greater proportion of the entire body of extant remains.

We are admitted to so scanty an acquaintance with the political vicissitudes connected with the British epoch, alike before and after the Roman time, that it is futile to speculate on the circumstances which led to the establishment of a coinage in Britain, when it

began, and when it terminated. It is of course easy to trace in the rude and often amorphous pieces, which presumably belong to the period between the latest money of absolute British fabric, and the *sceatta* and *styca* era, the old influence in the grotesque and barbarous designs and the primitive fabric; but there is nothing beyond guesswork to help us in ascertaining, even approximately, the date at which a marked improvement on the best style of the inscribed British currency set in, or the causes of such a progress and change. Of the greatest power in the world, the history down to the middle of the sixth century is the most obscure from every point of view, when we have exhausted the little that is trustworthy and have discarded all that is empirical or false.

Of the commercial value of British coins it is difficult to speak. The inscribed series is the most esteemed. The pieces in base metal, copper, and tin are abundant. The gold money with *Cunob* and *Boduoc* is easily obtained. That of Verica, Tasciovanus, and some of the less familiar names is rarer. But the coins of Verica, of which one at least is reputed to have been struck in Gaul, have become commoner by reason of finds.

Of the ANGLO-SAXON money it must be predicated that the objects themselves are less interesting, from their general destitution of all claims as works of art, than the historical associations which they possess, and in many instances exclusively preserve. With very few exceptions, the symptoms of progress among the earlier

rulers of Britain, numismatically speaking, were not only faint and slow, but liable to interruption; and it was not till England came into contact with Flemish workmanship and taste, under the later Plantagenets, by commercial and other relationships, that the currency assumed an aspect worthy of the rank of the country in other respects. The Anglo-Saxons obeyed the principle, so characteristic of a barbarous people, of copying every variety of model, in general with indifferent success, and of these imitations there were often degraded counterfeits.

There seems to be a fair probability that, as time goes on, many important discoveries will be made in this series, if not in the British. The exhumation in 1868 of the gold *tremisses* at Crondale, Hants, conclusively shews how near to our feet, as it were, lie the means of augmenting and revising our state of knowledge respecting the numismatic transactions of remote ages in this island, no less than the constant and intimate relationship between the English and their Continental neighbours.

The coins of the Heptarchy, to our knowledge of which large and important additions have been made in recent times, both in the way of discovery and appropriation, succeeded not immediately to those of the Britons, but to a very numerous and varied class of silver currency termed *sceatta*, from the Anglo-Saxon *sceattan*, to cut. These pieces resemble the British in their imitative character, and appear to be almost invariably efforts on the part of engravers superior to

those of the former epoch, yet still far from expert, to copy Roman and other types. The *sceattæ* are usually round, but also of irregular forms, and frequently imperfect in the rendering of the impression from the die. They occur, like their predecessors, inscribed and uninscribed; and there is no further clue to their origin than the sites on which they have been brought to light. Kent is the county in which many of them have been found, and Canterbury was probably a leading centre of production, as it was the presumed source of the unique gold *triens* reading *Dorovernis*, mentioned by numismatic writers. Parallel with them in the north were the singular billon *stycas* of the kingdom of Northumbria, a series which stands by itself, and comprises many rare names of princes and varieties of mintage; it dates from the seventh century to the ninth (670–867), when the secular rulers of this part of Britain adopted the silver coinage, long elsewhere prevalent. But the Archbishops of York retained the system some years later.

Of the South and West Saxons there are no identifiable coins, but of Kent, Mercia, and East Anglia there are considerable series, those of the first-named district comprising many struck by certain Archbishops of Canterbury. The earliest silver penny is attributed to Æthelbert II. of Kent, about 725; one of Baldred, the last king, exhibits for the first time, unless we reckon the *triens* above referred to, the place of coinage, *DRVR CITS*, an abbreviated form of *Dorovernia Civitas*.

The coinage of Mercia is redeemed from the normal barbarism of Anglo-Saxon workmanship by the well-executed pennies of Offa (757–796), which exist in very numerous types, all more or less uncommon and valuable; but the most singular production of the reign is the imitation of a gold Arabic *marcus*, with Mohammedan legends, like the gold *dinhero* of Alfonso VIII. of Castile (c. 1193), and *Offa Rex* added. This piece appears to be the survivor of a very large number once existing, if it be the case that it belongs to the annual oblation of 396 *marcuses* promised by Offa to the Pope's Legate. But there is a second, almost equally striking, which bears the name of his queen, Cynethrith or Quinred, on the reverse. The story runs that the daughter of this princely couple died a beggar in the streets of Pavia. The pennies of Burgred are tolerably abundant, and do not greatly vary from each other or from those of his successor, Ceolwulf.

The numismatic annals of East Anglia extend from 690 to 890; the pennies of Beonna, the first recorded king, are rare, as well as those of the other rulers, except Edmund, specimens of whose posthumous coinage subsequent to his canonisation may be easily obtained in fine state. His halfpenny, the first coined so far as we know in England, is rare.

Besides the prelates, who struck money at Canterbury and York, we have pennies of St. Peter, St. Martin, and St. Edmund (just mentioned), from the mints at York, Lincoln, and Bury; the ecclesiastical coinage determined in the ninth century, but the monetary privilege lasted

down to the Reformation, and was extended to some of the episcopal Sees. Pieces of the ordinary regal type frequently present themselves with the initials or monogram of the personage under whose immediate authority they were struck. Some of the Durham pennies of Wolsey bear *T. W.* and a cardinal's hat, which bespeaks them not prior to 1516.

The sole monarchs of England are usually reckoned as commencing with Egbert (800–837); but Edgar (959–975) was the first who can be said to have actually reigned over the whole country; and we know that the royal authority in the time of Alfred (872–901) was constantly disputed and infringed, and that down to the period of the Norman settlement in 1066 there was no stability in the government, owing in great measure to successive invasions and revolts. The style and fabric of the silver penny under Egbert and his successors, however, gradually improved; those of Alfred, of numerous types, including the London one with the portrait, are peculiarly interesting to us from the personal character of the issuer; and the profuse volume of currency belonging to the long reigns of Canute and Edward the Confessor, amounting to hundreds of varieties, seems to establish the beneficial growth of foreign influence and an increasing demand for specie. It was precisely a juncture when the coinage of France had degenerated from the later Carolingian standard, and under the Capetian dynasty exhibited debased types. But the Northern nations had improved their money, and it was from the Danish conquerors that England acquired

the superior material and designs which distinguish the circulating medium from this time till the civil troubles under the Plantagenets. Under Alfred the halfpenny reappeared for the first time since the reign of Ædmund of East Anglia; but the innovation may be supposed not to have met with favour, as we meet with no examples beyond those struck by his successor Edward the Elder and by Edward the Confessor. The halfpence of Alfred were unknown till the Cuerdale find, and specimens of other reigns may come to light.

The earliest Anglo-Saxon money was, like the majority of the British, uninscribed; occasionally what appears to be the name of an individual occurs on the *sceattas*; there is even one ascribed to a king of Kent, Ethelbert I. (568–615), with an indistinct legend; but in course of time the system prevailed of naming the sovereign and the moneyer on opposite sides. Sometimes the former is omitted, and the Normans added the places of mintage, which became under them extremely numerous. It is deserving of remark that on several of the Northumbrian pennies the Scandinavian element manifests itself in the forms *Kununka*, *Kunuk*, or *Conunc*, for *Rex*.

The Anglo-Norman line closely adhered, from diplomatic motives, to the monetary principle which William I. found in force on his assumption of the crown; his common *PAX* type followed the precedent of a Lincoln penny of Canute; and no material variation occurred in the English currency down to the reign of

Henry III., unless we regard as such the halfpenny struck under Henry II. In the proclamation of 1222 against clipping, mention is made of farthings, but none are at present traceable. This very protracted reign, however, witnessed three remarkable novelties or experiments: in the insertion in some pieces of the word *Terri*, *Terci*, or *III.*, to distinguish the money from that of the preceding Henrys; in the issue of a gold piece weighing two sterlings and current for 20 silver pence; and in the effort to supplement the penny itself by the coin already existing in France and Italy under the name of the *gros* or *grosso* = 4 pence. The latter does not seem to have been actually struck in 1249, when, according to Grafton, it was sanctioned by Parliament; but the gold money was not only issued, but remained in circulation many years, and in 49 Henry III. was ordered to pass for 24 pence. This highly interesting monument, of which two of the four known specimens are in the British Museum, differed from the occasional essays in the same metal in France of anterior date in being a serious effort, which did not, however, succeed, to institute a gold coinage in England nearly a century before the actual date. With the reservation of the gold penny of Henry III., of which Colonel Murchison's (previously Mr. Martin's) fetched £140. the Anglo-Norman series is less rich in costly rarities than the Anglo-Saxon, although there are many pieces, such as the so-called Stephen and Matilda penny and certain rare varieties of Stephen and Henry I., with a few baronial coins, which command good prices. At

the Webb sale in 1894 some silver pennies with *Matilda Regina* were withdrawn as spurious.

But among the antecedent collections numerous difficulties beset the path of the collector, and it is perhaps unnecessary to add that the most exacting figures are asked for the poorest and rudest examples appertaining to brief and obscure reigns. In this case, again, it is wiser to be incomplete, so far as private collections go. The British Museum catalogue of the English coins down to the Conquest, the new Montagu catalogue, and Mr. Grueber's account of the last find of rare Anglo-Saxon pennies are our best guides.

In 1280 occurred a new coinage of pennies, halfpence, and farthings, of which the lowest value henceforth continued to form a permanent feature in the English currency. Under the Edwards mints again grew more numerous, and the name of the moneyer disappeared. Owing to the increase of trade the influx of foreign money became larger, and various descriptions of counterfeit coin are mentioned, and interdicted by proclamation; these pieces are cited by terms chiefly corrupt and unintelligible. The acceptance of a medium of lower standard, which we conclude to have come in principal measure from the Netherlands and Luxemburg (*Luxemburghs* are noticed by Chaucer in the Monk's Prologue), was obviously profitable to experts, as the English penny was of fine silver (24 to 23 and a fraction grains Tower); in the time of Henry III. it was appointed to weigh 31 grains of wheat. During upward of a century (1272–1377)

the silver underwent very slight alteration either for England or Ireland, and until recent times the coins of the three Edwards remained undistinguished. The Irish money of Edward I. and II. equally reads *Edw.*

The feeling for a higher denomination than the existing unit seems to have sprung from the introduction of the *gros tournois* into France about 1248, but the project was not carried out till the reign of Edward III., although a trial-piece of the new type is sometimes ascribed to his predecessor on the throne. The former prince has the honour of being associated with the second attempt, which equally failed, to establish a gold coinage in emulation of those which had now for some time been in use on the Continent; in 1343 florins, half-florins, and quarter-florins were issued to pass for 6s., 3s., and 1s. 6d. respectively; they were of fine gold, and 50 florins were to be made out of the pound Tower. In the same year these pieces were withdrawn, and were superseded by the noble, half-noble, and quarter, current for 6s. 8d., 3s. 4d., and 1s. 8d., the half not appearing till 1346. All these monetary enterprises suffered from a single disadvantage, inasmuch as the standard was superior to that elsewhere employed, and they were exchanged and exported. To the reduction of Calais by the English we owe, a few years after this important numismatic era, the commencement of the long-lived Anglo-Gallic series in gold, silver, and billon, among which occur some of the most beautiful and artistic examples of early currency connected with the country. The *salute d'or* and

gros d'argent of Henry V. are considered the rarest pieces, but the *florin*, *écu*, *cleaise*, *leopard*, and *guiennois* of Edward III. or of the Black Prince are also very valuable. The florin is of the usual Florentine type and module, and so far differs from the rest; it occurs with the m.m. of two crowns or a leopard's head.

It seems probable that the fine preservation in which we have received much of the early gold money of England is susceptible of the solution at which Ruding long since arrived, and which may be equally applicable to that of France, that it was at first a luxurious rather than a practical novelty, and was little used in commerce, the prices of the necessaries of life falling within the pieces in the inferior metal already current. It is at the same time further remarkable that in the currency of Edward III. and his immediate successors gold preponderated, if we include the Anglo-Gallic money; and even in the time of Edward IV. the currency was equally divided between the two metals. There were no middle values.

The English coinage underwent no material development subsequently to the accession of the groat, halfpenny, and farthing in silver, and the noble and its divisions in gold, with the collateral Anglo-Gallic money current for the possessions of Edward and his successors in France, until the 5th Edward IV., when the *angel* in gold and the moiety appeared; nor were any further substantial additions made prior to the 5th and 18th Henry VII., two very important dates, as they are those of the introduction of the first *pound* sovereign, or double

rial, and the first shilling, coins struck perhaps in small numbers, and of considerable rarity. The latter is at the same time noteworthy, as well as the groat of contemporary mintage, for the earliest realistic portrait of an English king. Henry continued the rose-rial or half-sovereign, which is far rarer than the former, and of which the Pembroke example fetched £205, and struck the double pound sovereign or four-rial piece. There is a very rare groat of the portcullis type of this reign, with a full-face portrait, which sold at the Thomas sale for £14, 10s. Henry VIII. in his first year struck the double sovereign, and in his second issue (eighteenth year) the gold crown and half-crown, and the George noble and the half. The silver crown, half-crown, sixpence, and threepence followed in 5th Edward VI.; they are of many varieties, the shilling being of two distinct types and standards, one of base silver, with a profile portrait, the other full-face of fine silver. The shilling of Edward of the second issue, 1547, is the earliest English dated current coin, as the Perkin Warbeck *gros* of 1494 is doubtless a jeton; the half-sovereign, which also bears 1547, is regarded as an essay. Edward also struck a triple sovereign in his third year, and in his fourth a six-angel piece in gold, supposed to have been a pattern, and weighing 480 grains. It was to the base shilling of this reign that Latimer referred in his sermon before the King, when he spoke of it as little better than a groat for value, and of its motto, *Timor domini fons vitæ*, which he trusted that his Highness

would take to heart in choosing his wife and his officers. The mints at this period were London, Southwark, York, Bristol, and Canterbury. That of London was at Durham House in the Strand, and was under the control of Sir William Sharrington.

The rule of Mary and of Mary and Philip brought no noticeable accessions to the coinage beyond a reputed half-crown, but rather a *mezzo-scudo*, of Neapolitan origin, with both their portraits; the shilling with the *vis-à-vis* busts has become famous from the couplet in *Hudibras*, but it was merely the common Spanish type. The rarest coin of Mary alone is the half-groat; the pennies are not common. The half-sovereign of 1553 is the first published one with a date.

The volume of English currency had now become, as we see, both large and important, and some of the types found admirers and copyists abroad. At Gorinchen, Zwolle, Campen, and elsewhere in the Netherlands excellent imitations of the gold nobles of Edward III. and IV., and of the sovereign of Mary, were struck, with the substitution of Dutch legends and arms. The Campen sovereign is far scarcer than the English original, not more than three or four being known.

The lengthened government of Elizabeth was chiefly distinguished by the improvement of the standard, the debased coinage of the two previous reigns being called in and sent over to Ireland; by the institution of two standards of gold—standard and crown; by the first experiment in milled money; by certain subsidiary changes, as the withdrawal of the farthing and the

issue of pieces in silver for three halfpence and three farthings, the latter of which Shakespear, from its excessive tenuity, compares, in *King John*, to a person of very spare habit—"Look where three farthings goes!"—and finally by the establishment for the first time in England of a colonial silver coinage, composed of a crown, half-crown, shilling, and sixpence, in 1600, for the use of the East India Company, and generally designated the portcullis series. The only other instances in which the country had connected its name with currency not intended for internal circulation were the Anglo-Gallic money, definitely discontinued under Henry VIII., and the *daalders* and their divisions minted under the authority of the Earl of Leicester in 1586 and following years.

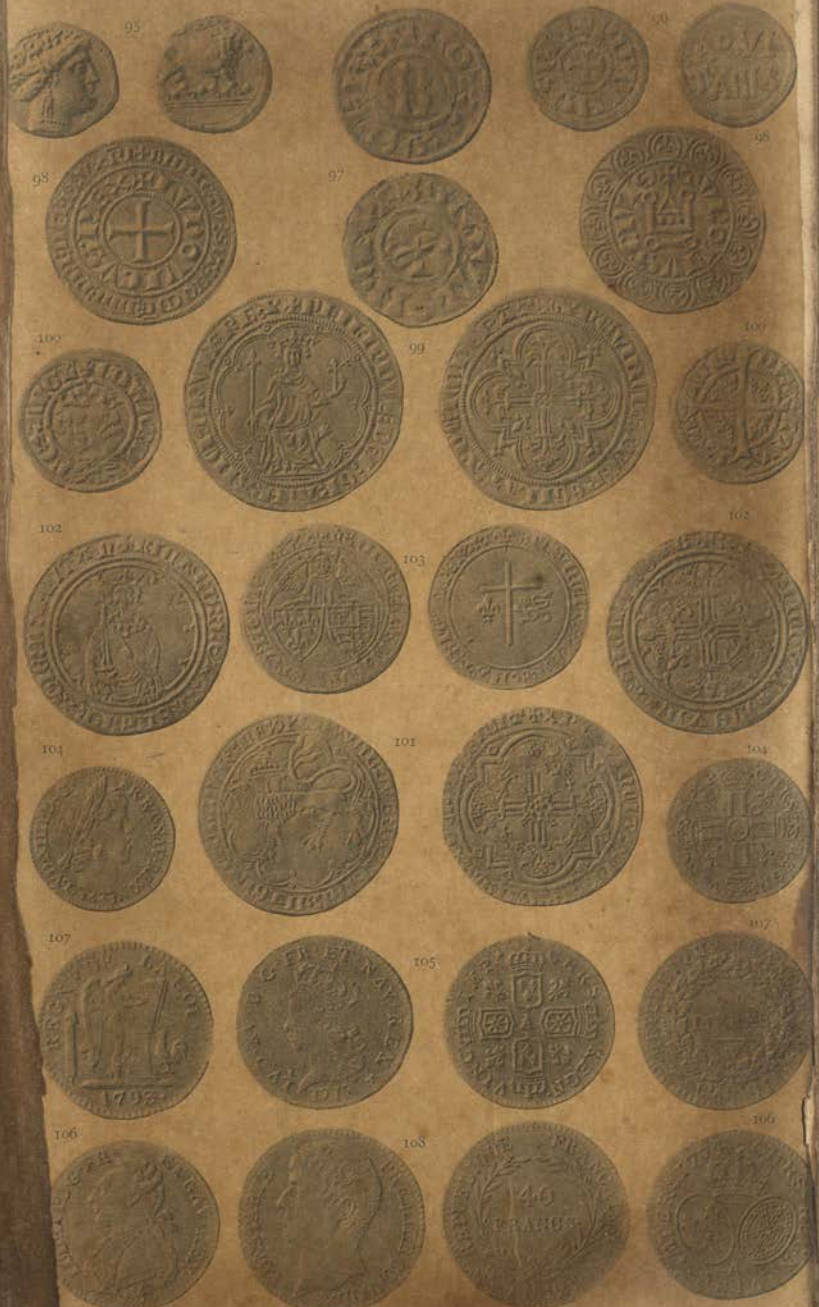
Many of the coins of Elizabeth bear dates recorded in the customary manner, but the portcullis money of 1600 and 1601 exhibits only the last numeral. The Queen is well known to have struck pence and halfpence in copper for Ireland of various dates; but what appears to be a regal halfpenny in the same metal for England exists, and is figured and fully described in *Spink's Circular* for December 1893.

With the advent of the Stuarts and the union of the crowns the monetary system necessarily became more complex and elaborate, and so it may be convenient to offer a few introductory remarks on the independent coinage of SCOTLAND prior to the Union.

The earliest money of this division of the United

Kingdom is ascribed to the reign of Alexander I. (1107–24); there is nothing but the silver penny, of more or less barbarous execution, anterior to the reign of Alexander III. (1249–85), who added the half-penny and farthing, and greatly improved the fabric and style by following the English model. We have, perhaps, to attribute to the residence of David II. in England his subsequent adoption of the *groat* and the *noble*, of which the latter is extremely rare, and was possibly never published. Both pieces belong to the latter part of his reign. With Robert II., his immediate successor, the regular gold coinage began. We meet with the types of the St. Andrew, the Lion, the Unicorn, the Rider, the Bonnet-piece, the Ecu, the Ryal, the Merk, the Noble, the Hat-piece, the Sword-and-Sceptre, and the Unit, in gold, and in silver, billon, or copper, upon the accession of Mary and the growth of foreign influence, the testoon in several varieties, the Ryal, the Dollar, the Shilling, Merk, and Penny, with their multiples, the multiples of the pound Scots up to twenty, the Plack, the Bawbee, the Lion or Hardhead, the Turner, and the Bodle, besides the ordinary English denominations with distinctive marks subsequent to 1707.

A certain historical interest attaches itself to the coins of John Baliol (none of Edward Baliol have been found), Robert Bruce, James IV., and Mary: but, as a general proposition, the Scotish money commands attention, first, because it is Scotish, and, secondly, because it embraces a large number of pieces, principally fractional portions, of singular rarity. Here



our experience teaches us that the whole is not greater than its parts, as a gold unit of Charles I. by Briot, the finest example in the entire series, is procurable for a quarter of the amount paid for the eighth. The fabulous prices realised at the Wingate sale, however, were due to special circumstances, and more recent quotations are greatly reduced. The separate currency for Scotland closes with Anne and the year 1707, and consists of silver only. The latest gold coins were the Darien pistole and half-pistole of William III. (1701).

The period from James V., whose bonnet-piece of 1539 is the earliest dated Scotish coin, to the succession of the Stuarts to the British throne, was, from an autonomous point of view, the most prosperous one for Scotish numismatic history; and within these dates there are many pieces of admirable execution and characteristic design, as the Bonnet-piece, the Hat-piece, the Cruichton and Sword dollars, the silver coins with the young head of James VI., and those with the portraits of his mother. The finest epoch, however, may be probably considered as having been from 1603 to 1707, when the coinage was under English auspices, and was on a par with that of the dominant nation in quality and variety. The difference between the two series is that the local and sentimental interest seems to subside very sensibly after 1603; but the curious old denominations and symbols survived to the end; and among the latest fruits of the Scotish mint was the numismatic memorial of the rather uncanny Darien project.

The latest monetary evidence of Scotish autonomy is

the gold sword-and-sceptre piece of 1604; thenceforward we have only to deal with the coinage of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British colonies or dependencies. The coinage of the Stuarts was sumptuous and lavish. James retained most of the types of his predecessor with the necessary modifications, and introduced others, namely, the unit, the laurel, and the fifteen-shilling piece (a substitute for the *spur-ryal*, and the obverse copied from a Bavarian *kipperthaler* of 1621). The unit and laurel were only variants of the twenty-shilling piece. The silver coinage corresponded with that of Elizabeth, except that on the crown and half-crown the king appears on horseback. Farthings of copper were also struck under a grant made to John, Lord Harington of Exton, and there are pattern half-farthings of similar origin. The rare pieces in the James series are the rose-ryal with the plain back to the throne, the spur-ryal, the fifteen-shilling piece, and the silver half-crown of the *Exurgat* type. The crown is difficult to procure in thoroughly fine state.

The principal numismatic features of the subsequent reign are due to the Civil War, prior to which the coinage was a virtual reproduction of that of the first Stuart. To the period of the troubles (1642–46) are to be referred the Oxford crown of 1644; the twenty-shilling, ten-shilling, and five-shilling pieces of the Declaration type; the £3 piece in gold, of which there are varieties and in the Hunterian Museum a pattern; and the interesting series of siege-money, largely coined from plate presented to Charles for the purpose by his

subjects and by the Universities. The crown of 1644 and the twenty-shilling piece of fine work seem to have been equally from the hands of Thomas Rawlins, engraver, dramatist, and poet. Mr. Richardson's specimen brought £90 in 1895. The royal farthing was again struck, and is still sufficiently common. Of the normal coinage outside that of necessity the chief sources were the Tower, York, Bristol, and Aberystwith; the products of the last mint are distinguished by the Prince of Wales' feathers.

The COMMONWEALTH and PROTECTORATE (1649–58) represent a highly striking and memorable epoch; but the types employed by the Government both before and after Cromwell's assumption of supreme power were remarkably simple, and in fact monotonous, since a single specimen of either coinage practically answers for the rest. The peculiar allocation of the shields on the republican series, perhaps copied from the Anglo-Gallic salute, angelot, or blanque, procured for these pieces the nickname of *Breeches*, which, it was said at the time, was a fit name for the coins of the Rump. The sole novelty in the Protectoral money was the fifty-shilling piece in gold, unless we are to include the so-called two-shillings and the ninepence in silver, and certain essays in copper (1649–51), which were never issued, but possess an historical interest in presenting the likeness of Cromwell and the Protectoral title some time prior to 1653, as if the matter had been thus early in debate. There are scarce patterns by Blondeau and

Ramage of the Commonwealth, and three distinct varieties of the crown with the head of Cromwell, of which the finest, that by Simon, unfortunately presents more or less the historical flaw caused by the fracture of the die.

The earliest monetary examples associated with Charles II. are the octagonal siege-pieces in gold and silver, struck for use during the defence of Pontefract Castle by Colonel Morris after the death of Charles I., with the legends *Carolvs Secvndvs*, 1648, and *Post Mortem Patris Pro Filio*. In his ordinary coinage the new king at first adopted the hammered system, but in 1662 returned to that introduced under Cromwell. At the same time he retained the gold broad and its divisions, abandoning the higher denominations in that metal instituted by his illustrious predecessor on the throne. Several patterns were struck during this period, particularly the famous *Petition* and *Reddite* crowns, so termed from the legends, and at present of great rarity and value. In the British Museum is an example of the former in the original leather case; it is said that only twelve were struck, and in similar state one realised at an auction a few years ago the sum of £500. From 1662 the coinage embraced the guinea, two-guineas, half-guinea in gold, to which in 1668 the five-guineas was added (Pepys tells us that he ordered two on their first appearance in that year); and in silver the crown, half-crown, shilling, sixpence, and Maundy money. In 1672, after the issue of some patterns, a halfpenny and farthing in Swedish copper came into regular use, the seated figure of Bri-

tannia on the reverse said to represent the features of the Duchess of Richmond, "La Belle Stewart." One of the farthings of 1665, with a bust of the king resembling that on the *Petition* crown, bears the proud legend, *Quatuor Maria Vindico*, when England could not even hold the Thames against the Dutch. A tin farthing of later date with a copper plug reads *Nvmmorvm Famvlvs*. An interesting adjunct to the gold money of this and later reigns is the elephant and castle, the mark of the Africa Company, whose exportation of the precious ore from Guinea gave the now familiar name to the coins struck from it.

The most remarkable features in the numismatic annals of the Restoration and of the short-lived rule of James II. were due, as in the case of Charles I., to abnormal circumstances; we allude to the famous *Petition* and *Reddite* crowns, arising from differences and jealousies among the rival engravers of the time, and to the gun-money of James, fabricated out of a variety of material at short intervals during his final struggle for the crown in Ireland during the years 1689 and 1690, and consisting of the crown, half-crown, shilling, and sixpence. Some specimens occur in silver, white metal, and even gold; but these may be later re-strikes from the original dies. The ordinary Irish copper and English pewter money of James is rare in fine state.

William and Mary, and William alone after 1695, preserved substantially without change the English or British coinage as it existed under the former Stuarts;

but in the shield Nassau is added on an escutcheon of pretence. In one France occupies the fourth grand quarter, possibly through an error. The money with the jugate busts is scarcer than that with the head of the King. In 1696, when complaint of the bad state of the currency had for some time been growing louder, and Fleetwood, Bishop of Ely, author of the *Chronicon Preciosum*, had declaimed from the pulpit against the injustice done thereby to the poor, William undertook an inquiry into the matter, and in the ensuing year appointed Sir Isaac Newton Master of the Mint, a post which he held down to the reign of George I. The coins of William sometimes occur in proof state. The Maundy money is only of the jugate type and of 1689.

Anne, the last of the Stuarts (1702–14), made no material alteration in the monetary system. Her coinage, in which the star of the Garter takes the place of the shield of Nassau, is divisible into two classes: that before and that after the Union with Scotland in 1707. The issue of 1702, particularly the pattern guinea with the low drapery, which was withdrawn at her Majesty's instance, is perhaps the more desirable. The roses and plumes found in the angles of some of the money, and the word *Vigo* under the bust in other pieces, refer to the sources whence the metal was derived: the West of England, the Welsh mines, and the Spanish ships taken in Vigo Bay in 1702. The suggestion of Dean Swift, that the currency should be made what it had been in foreign countries and among the ancients from time

immemorial, a medium for perpetuating historical events and personal merit, met with no further response than we find in the pattern halfpenny with the Britannia holding a rose and thistle sprung from one stem, and the farthing commemorating the general peace of 1713 with the legend *Pax Missa per Orbem*. Of the halfpenny there are at least five varieties, and of the smaller piece as many. A good specimen of the common farthing of 1714 is worth about 12s.

The union of the kingdoms in 1707 put a term to the special coinage for SCOTLAND, which since the advent to the British throne of James VI. in 1603 had accumulated into a very large and important volume in all metals, and embraced many fine examples of numismatic skill. The series extends from 1605 to 1642, and from 1661 to 1709; there was an interruption during the Civil War and the Republic, and in this long interval the old coins doubtless circulated exclusively. Among the rarities may be mentioned the first coinage of James I., the quarter and eighth unit of Charles I., the sixty-shilling piece of James II., and the sixty-shilling piece of William III. The Darien pistole and half-pistole of 1701 are also valuable, and interesting as the last gold money of Scotland. But the gold unit of Charles I., by Briot (1637), is the *chef-d'œuvre*, although it is by no means uncommon. To obtain these productions of the more recent epoch, however, in fine state is generally a task of almost equal difficulty with that attending the earlier reigns; and the remark most

strongly applies to the billon and copper, which are, as a rule, wretchedly poor.

The House of Brunswick-Lüneburg, on its accession in 1714, found the coinage of the realm established on its modern basis in nearly every respect; and in a sketch of the subject which does not aspire to enter into the documentary annals or technical details there is less and less to be said. George I. struck all the denominations of his predecessor, the halfpenny and farthing becoming ordinarily current; and the *dump* of 1717–18 is a well-executed piece. The only salient numismatic features of the reign, besides the Irish and American money, were the Elector and pattern guineas of 1714 and 1727, the quarter-guinea, now issued for the first time (1718), and the rather scarce silver pieces marked W. C. C., for *Welsh Copper Company*. George II. (1727–60) had two coinages, the Young and the Old heads, the former engraved, like those of George I., by Croker, a German artist, the latter by Tanner. The Young-head money ranged from 1728 to 1739, the Old-head from 1739 to 1760; and there are modifications of the second. The money of the earliest years is scarce, particularly that of 1728–30. The coins with *Lima* under the bust were made from gold captured by British vessels at sea.

Considering its length, the Government of George III., from 1760 to 1820, was not, from a monetary point of view, prolific, yet to some extent it is numismatically remarkable from the number of pat-

terns which were made by various artists for the improvement of the coinage, which continued to grow from the death of George II. to 1816 scantier and poorer, till tokens and counter-marked foreign specie were brought into requisition to supply the deficiencies, while the Brunswick-Lüneburg or Hanoverian silver currency of the King, with well-executed portraits and in good style, was uninterrupted and profuse. The scarcity of silver was most severely felt, as the coinage of gold and copper was carried on more regularly. In the year just mentioned, however, the deadlock came to an end, and such a dilemma has never recurred.

The most notable productions of this reign were the quarter-guinea of 1762, struck for the second and last time, the seven-shilling piece, the Northumberland shilling of 1763, of which there was a very limited issue for a special purpose, the spade-guinea with the half, the Maundy wire money of 1792, the broad-rimmed copper series of 1797, including the novel twopenny-piece, the first sovereign, 1817, with the half, and the five-pound piece of 1820 by Pistrucci, of which it is said that only twenty were struck.

The shorter administrations of George IV. and William IV., and the extremely protracted one of her present Majesty, bring us down to the present day without enabling us to point to any striking achievements beyond the admirable works of Wyon and a few novel types: the rose, shamrock, and thistle money, of which the shilling of 1820 is rare, the lion shilling and sixpence, Colonel Fullerton's patterns of

1799 of George Prince of Wales as Seneschal of Scotland, and the five-pound piece of Victoria (1839), of which the first and most rare issue omits the garter on the shoulder of the Queen, has a plain edge, and reads *Dirigit* for *Dirige*. The sovereign of 1837 is the prototype of the fascinating coinage of 1839. To the Victorian era belong the Gothic crown (1846), of which a rare variety has the *decolté* drapery, disapproved (it is said) by Prince Albert; the florin (1848–51–87–93), the double florin (1887), the substitution of the bronze coins with the artificial portrait for the copper (1860), and the withdrawal of the groat (1856). There are four types of the florin, the first having been suppressed because it omitted *D. G.* in the legend. In the armorial shield on her Majesty's coinage, the crown of Hanover having passed to the next male heir, the escutcheon of pretence was omitted. There are also numerous patterns, notably those for a proposed international coinage—the 4s. and 2s. or dollar and half-dollar in gold, and the *dime*, *centum*, and other essays in silver for the florin of 1848. The double florin was coined only in 1887; for the £5 and the £2 pieces the call is very restricted. The so-called Jubilee series of 1887 and the current one are scarcely entitled to attention. They equally run from £5 to 3d. A new bronze coinage similar to the gold and silver is nearly ready, but has been delayed by the too close resemblance of the farthing to the half-sovereign—a chronic fatality!

It remains to offer some observations on the Irish

and COLONIAL currencies. The former opens with a series of barbarous imitations, emanating from Irish chieftains or *reguli* between the eighth and eleventh centuries, of the Anglo-Saxon types, the earliest of tolerable execution being those which closely resemble the pennies of Ethelred II. of England. Canute struck pennies for Ireland, but they are of great rarity. From John, first as Lord of Ireland and then as King, commences the regular and common series from a variety of mints: Dublin, Waterford, Cork, Limerick, Trim, Drogheda, Youghal, and Wexford. A peculiarity of the more ancient coins is the enclosure of the portrait in a triangle; the system determined in 1822; but there is no money of Edward VI. or of Anne; and no gold exists. We must consider the Inchinquin, Cork, and Ormonde siege-pieces of Charles I. and the gun-money of James II. as classable under the present head. Elizabeth, James, and Charles I. struck small copper coins representing halfpence and farthings with the harp, which distinguishes the whole of this section from the reign of Henry VIII., and procured for the silver sixpences the name of *harpers*. The first genuine copper coinage was in 1723, when Wood's halfpence and farthings appeared with a bust similar to his *Rosa Americana*. The series was carried on by George II., III., and IV., and George III. issued silver tokens for 6s., 2s. 6d., 10d., and 5d. between 1804 and 1813 for the sister kingdom. The prevailing characteristic of all this currency, except the copper, is its light weight. The Irish harp on the coins of Henry VIII. divides the initials of the King and

his consorts; some have H. and A. for Henry and Anne (Boleyn). The formation of a satisfactory collection is barred by the excessive difficulty of procuring specimens in good state from the heavy wear of the low standard of metal under the Tudors and Stuarts.

The money of the CHANNEL ISLANDS and the ISLE OF MAN forms a couple of groups of differing origin, yet alike distinct from the ordinary currency for the Colonies. The former dates from 1830, of which year we have the four *doubles* and one *double* for Guernsey, and extends to the present reign, comprising 1 *d.*, 2 *d.*, 4 *d.*, and 8 *d.* for Guernsey, and a penny, halfpenny, and farthing for Jersey. The earliest 2 *d.* appears to be of 1858, and 8 *d.* of 1834. The *double* is interesting as the last numismatic vestige of French rule. There are silver Bank tokens for 5s. for Guernsey, 1809, and of 3s. and 1s. 6d. for Jersey, 1812–13, besides others of lower values issued by tradesmen. There is no gold, and the English money is generally accepted. The 5s. Guernsey token of 1809 is rare.

The Isle of Man owes its independent coinage to the feudal conditions under which it was held till 1765 by the Stanley family. James, Earl of Derby (1702–36), struck from 1709 to 1733 a series of copper coins of the Eagle and Child type, of which some are reputed to be patterns, and a piece supposed to be intended for a half-crown, 1725; and the Duke of Athol in 1758 issued two coins (penny and twopence) with his crowned monogram. From 1786 to 1839 the regal copper with

the special insignia of the island was the only separate medium, excepting a few Bank tokens; and the penny of 1786 is the first struck within the British dominions. The Manx independent currency has long ceased.

The monograph of Mr. Atkins, of which a second and improved edition may be expected, and the Montagu Colonial Catalogue, 1892, are the best guides for the coinage of British America, the East India Company, Ceylon, Canada, the West Indies, Australasia, and the other settlements of the English abroad. But the small volume by Mr. Samuel Smith, 1890, also well deserves attention. In the American series the Hog-money of the Sommers Islands: the Maryland shilling, sixpence, groat, and penny: the New England uniface shilling, sixpence, and threepence: the Massachusetts (1652–62) oak and pine-tree, and the Rosa Americana (1722–33) series: the Carolina and New England tokens of 1694, are the prominent features. A penny of Maryland reads on reverse *Denarivm Terræ Mariæ*, and has two flags issuing out of a coronet: on obverse the titles as on the other pieces, with the same portrait and m.m. For India there was nothing between the portcullis money of Elizabeth, 1600–1, already mentioned, and the coinage in all metals under Charles II. for Bombay and Madras, embracing several rare and valuable types and examples. Some of the earlier issues of silver and copper are highly characteristic and beautifully executed; but the more recent bronze money for many of our colonies has been intrusted to mechanics.

VIII

THE COIN MARKET

THE most usual and favourite types of money, whether English or foreign, ancient or modern, which occur for sale are the Persian *daric*, the Macedonian *stater*, a coin of Alexander the Great, a Roman *as*, a coin of Julius Cæsar, the German or Low Country *thaler* or *daalder*, the Russian *rouble*, the French gold *écu*, *louis*, and 20 *francs* and silver 5-franc piece, the Spanish *piece of eight* or *piastre* and gold *doubloon*, the Portuguese silver *coröa* and gold *dobra*, the Italian 5-*lire* piece, the American dollar of the Northern and other States, and the English guinea, crown, half-crown, shilling, and old-fashioned penny and double penny, and in the earlier series the Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman silver pennies of St. Edmund, Alfred the Great, Edward the Confessor, William the Conqueror, and the Plantagenets. The average market-price of such coins may be tabulated as follows:—

	Face-value.	Ordinary Specimen.	Fine or Early Specimen.	Maximum.	
				£	s.
Daric	10s.	42s.	63s.	5	5
Stater	14s.	63s.	£5. 5s.	7	7
Alexander	4s.	15s.	63s.	10	0
Roman *as*	1d.	7s. 6d.	42s.	20	0
Julius Cæsar (silver)	10d.	7s. 6d.	21s.	3	3
Thaler or daalder	2s. 6d. to 3s.	5s.	15s.	10	0
Rouble	2s. 9d. to 3s. 3d.	5s.	15s.	50	0
Ecu d'or	7s.	12s.	30s.	5	0
Louis	18s. to 19s.	21s.	30s.	2	2
20-francs	16s.	21s.	42s.	3	3
5-francs	4s.	6s.	15s.	1	5
Piece of eight	4s.	6s.	15s.	5	0
Doubloon	64s.	70s.	80s.	5	0
Coröa	4s.	6s.	10s.	1	1
Dobra	£6. 12s.	£7	£7. 10s.	9	0
5-lire piece	4s.	6s.	10s.	0	15
Dollar	4s.	6s.	15s.	2	2
Guinea	21s.	25s.	35s.	10	0
Crown	5s.	7s.	15s.	10	0
Half-crown	2s. 6d.	5s. or 6s.	15s.	5	0
Shilling	1s.	2s. 6d.	10s.	10	0
Penny	1d.	2d.	2s. 6d.	5	0
Double penny	2d.	4d.	5s.	2	2
Anglo-Saxon penny	1d.	2s.	10s.	25	0
Anglo-Norman penny	...	2s.	10s.	25	0
Queen Anne farthing	¼d.	12s.	42s.	10	0

These figures embrace, as we perceive, the entire range of probability as regards nine collectors out of ten; but they refer only, of course, to certain selected denominations belonging to the several European States, Great Britain included. Of the Scotish money, which does not find a place there, the face-value is perhaps less trustworthy as a guide than in the case of any other series except the early billon coinages of France, and the ascending *ratio* for condition and other circumstances is in both instances phenomenally rapid;

and it may be predicated of other numismatic productions in every country that the price of a fine example bears no comparison to that of a normal one. A really first-rate shilling of Philip and Mary may be worth £10, while an indifferent one is purchasable for 25s. A silver half-crown of James I. might command, if in exceptional preservation, £15, whereas one of the ordinary kind is not cheap at a third of that sum.

Our preceding table, however, does not contemplate unique types, absolute rarities of high class or matchless examples. The moment that a collector soars into these altitudes, he finds himself in a different atmosphere — in different company—among those whose pockets are deep and full.

On the contrary, there is the consoling prospect before the eyes of every energetic and discreet collector of securing in his time many bargains, as they are termed, and of adding to a cabinet coins which would at a normal price be unattainable, or at least undesirably dear; and these odd chances, if they do nothing more, tend to reduce the aggregate average.

Now, for instance, on the same day in London, a shilling of Charles II., 1673 (a common date), is sold by auction (1885) for £11, on account of its condition, while the exact duplicate is sold over the counter for 14s. In one catalogue a modern Bavarian thaler of a scarce type, 1825, is marked £11. 5s. 0d., in another 8s. 6d., both being proofs. Two specimens occur by a fortuitous circumstance of the Florentine siege-

109 110 111 112

113

113

115 114 115

116 116

118 117 118

piece of 1530 (see Plate vii. No. 75); the better goes to an English collector for 30s., the inferior to a foreign numismatist for £7. 10s. 0d. At the Meyer sale at Frankfort in 1894, three 10-kopek pieces of Catherine I. of Russia, 1726, are sold together for £15. 15s. 0d.; a finer one is obtained in London for 15s. These are merely, of course, a few examples, selected at random, of the disparities and caprices of selling values. *Prosit emptor!*

An extremely fine Wallenstein thaler of 1632, with three other coins, realises at Sotheby's 34s., while a second, not to be compared with it, brings separately a year or two later, at the same mart, £8. 8s. 0d., and far higher figures were sustained for quite an array of these coins in the Meyer auction.

Metal has by no means a prevalently governing influence on prices. The Greek coins in copper do not, it is true, command high figures; there has not yet arrived a fashion for them. But the Roman *first brass* in pure state are far dearer in proportion than most of the gold *solidi*. A genuine first brass *Roman* coin of the Emperor Otho would fetch £200. Even on the Continent higher quotations begin to be reached for the money of this class, and at the Meyer sale just cited the biggest figure for any lot was bidden for a Russian copper rouble of 1725, and a quarter rouble, 1726, both struck at Catherinenburg, the hammer falling at the sensational price of £105 or 2200 marks. In England fine copper is growing more and more into esteem and request.

In the United States department the coins which prove the exception to the prevailing rule are the *Hog-money*, the New England, Massachusetts, and Maryland series, the New England and Carolina half-penny tokens, 1694, the *Rosa Americana* (1722-33), the "Continental Currency" pewter dollar (1776), certain *cents* with the portrait of George Washington, the *cent* of 1799, the *half-dime* of 1802, and the *dollar* of 1804. With the half-dime it is said that a man once paid his travelling expenses from the States to England and back.

A set of the Hog-money of Bermuda—a shilling to a penny—may be worth from £50 to £100. The shilling is the commonest, but the most interesting, and should be procurable for £5; the penny is the rarest, and might fetch £20. The New England uniface shilling, sixpence, and threepence, struck there about 1650, cannot be obtained under £25; the shilling alone has realised £10.

A fine set of the Massachusetts shilling, sixpence, threepence, and twopence, 1652-62, commands five guineas; the sixpence in good state is the hardest to find.

Of the Maryland currency of Lord Baltimore, struck in England about 1630, there are the shilling, sixpence, groat, and penny, the first three in silver, the last a copper pattern. If the four should occur together highly preserved, they would not fall under the hammer at much less than £60. The sixpence is most readily obtained, but costs £6 or £7. The

penny alone might run to £25. The last which was exported to America was lost with the vessel on which it was despatched by an English dealer to his Transatlantic client.

Of the two halfpence of 1694, either in fine condition may be estimated at from £6 to £10.

The cents of Washington are fairly numerous, but those of 1783 and 1791 are the best known. The former has been re-struck from the original dies still in existence; a proof in gold is advertised in a recent Continental auction catalogue. Those of 1791 cost £2 or £3.

The *Rosa Americana* series has lately exhibited a tendency to rise in estimation. There are the twopence, penny, and halfpenny. Of the ordinary dates, 1722 and 1723, a set in fair condition fetches £3 or £4. The twopence of 1724 is not to be had for less than £10, nor that of 1733 (which has been imitated) under £25 or £30.

The Central and Southern American currencies are remarkably varied, but the commercial interest in them is not very keen. £2 or £3 ought to secure even a rarity, unless the metal-value is unusually high. The scarce and curious silver *peso* of Philip II., struck at Potosi, fetched only 18s. at a recent sale in London. But it is different with a few pieces of heavy gold struck by the earlier Portuguese rulers for the Indies. The celebrated gold *portuguez* of Emmanuel (1495–1521), and some other pieces issued by his successors, are excessively uncommon, and would certainly go into

large figures (£10 to £30), if they were offered to public competition.

Australasia has, as may be naturally imagined, a very modest array of nuggets, numismatically speaking, whatever it may possess in another sense. The Adelaide assay-piece of 1852 is worth 30s., having been intended as a sovereign, but happening to weigh about 21s. 6d., it was melted by the bullion-dealers.

The Port-Philip sovereign, 1852 and 1853, and the Sydney sovereign and half-sovereign of 1855–56, which generally occur as proofs, are apt to realise about thrice the face-value. The primitive *ounce* and *half-ounce* are worth somewhere about double their weight in ore.

The scarce pattern penny for New Zealand, 1879, has been carried to £3. 15s.

Upon the whole, the Oriental series, when a few early rarities irrespective of metal are excluded, must not be calculated at more than a fraction over weight. The gold is in general of high standard. An exception has to be noted in much of that of Japan, by which even experts were at first misled.

A limited number of exceptions to the principle are met with in the Anglo-Indian coinage for Bombay under Charles II. The *Pax Deo* rupee of 1678 with the arms of England, and the undated rupee and half-rupee with the arms of the East India Company belonging to the same reign, realise about £6. 6s. 0d. each; and there is a still rarer copper piece of the

seventh year of Charles, also struck for Bombay, which cost the writer £3. 15s. 0d.

The tin and pewter money (*pice and double pice*) of Charles II. and George II., for the same Presidency, are not expensive, but rarely occur in tolerable preservation: they are relatively worth from 10s. to 30s.

Some very interesting copper coins of the *cash* denomination and of native fabric, with the elephant on obverse, may be very occasionally procured in good state at a low price.

The acquisition of the British Colonial series, outside that of India and the other regions above mentioned, is not calculated to entail a very heavy cost, unless the purchaser determines to include rare patterns and varieties of type or metal. Take such pieces as the gold 4-gulden of George II. for Hanover, an acknowledged rarity—it may ascend to £3; or the 3-guilders of George III., 1809, for British Guiana—its commercial value lies between 30s. and 40s. A thousand coins, one with another, would not exceed £200.

Taking the 129 representative illustrations of the present little volume, of which the cost is unfortunately too well within the personal knowledge of the writer, let us tabulate them on a commercial basis:—

PLATE I.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
1	5	5	0	7	3	3	0	13	0	12	0
2	6	6	0	8	1	5	0	14	3	10	0
3	1	0	0	9	1	10	0	15	0	15	0
4	2	2	0	10	6	15	0	16	5	5	0
5	0	17	0	11	2	2	0	17	1	5	0
6	1	5	0	12	4	4	0				

PLATE II.

	£	s.	d.
18	2	10	0
19	13	0	0
20	18	0	0
21	0	15	0
22	0	3	6
23	10	0	0
24	1	5	0
25	0	8	6
26	0	15	0
27	4	10	0
28	4	0	0

PLATE III.

29	5	5	0
30	1	15	0
31	0	15	0
32	0	15	0
33	8	0	0
34	0	10	0
35	0	11	0
36	0	7	6
37	3	3	0
38	1	5	0
39	3	10	0
40	4	0	0
41	1	10	0

PLATE IV.

42	0	15	0
43	0	10	0
44	0	14	0
45	0	16	0
46	2	10	0
47	0	15	0
48	0	3	6
49–50	6	6	0

PLATE V.

51	0	3	0
52	0	16	0
53	5	10	0
54	5	0	0
55	0	12	0
56	3	0	0
57	0	2	0

PLATE VI.

58	0	17	6
59	1	10	0
60	2	15	0
61	1	1	0
62	1	10	0
63	0	17	6
64	0	3	6
65	1	5	0
66	0	12	0

PLATE VII.

67	2	10	0
68	0	2	6
69	1	7	6
70	0	10	0
71	2	2	0
72	1	10	0
73	0	15	0
74	2	10	0
75	1	10	0
76	0	1	0

PLATE VIII.

77	0	15	0
78	2	10	0
79	0	6	0
80	1	5	0
81	0	16	0
82	0	2	0
83	0	2	0
84	0	2	0

PLATE IX.

85	0	8	0
86	0	8	6
87	2	10	0
88	0	15	0
89	0	15	0
90	1	0	0
91	0	18	0
92	0	0	6
93	0	15	0
94	2	2	0

PLATE X.

95	0	16	0
96	0	16	0
97	0	10	6
98	0	6	0
99	4	0	0
100	0	7	6
101	6	0	0
102	5	5	0
103	5	5	0
104	0	16	0
105	0	18	0
106	1	4	0
107	1	4	0
108	2	10	0

PLATE XI.

109	9	0	0
110	1	0	0
111	6	10	0
112	2	2	0
113	1	15	0
114	2	2	0
115	2	2	0
116	3	3	0
117	2	10	0
118	2	2	0

PLATE XII.

119	1	10	0
120	8	15	0
121	0	14	0
122	3	15	0
123	0	12	0
124	4	4	0
125	0	15	0
126	1	16	0
127	0	5	0
128	11	11	0
129	7	2	6

Here we get a total of £272. 13s. 6d. for 129 pieces, or rather more than £2 each; but it may be said that this amount is in excess of the average on a larger number, where the picked examples do not so prominently rule. At the same time, where quality is cultivated and rarity is not excluded, it must be feared that an ascending ratio of cost is the necessary consequence.

Passing from hypothesis to absolute practical experience, a case may be noted where a representative and miscellaneous cabinet in all metals, and in the first state, amounting to upwards of 3000 items, cost just under £2500, and where it has been calculated that an additional £1500 would secure about 300 more specimens, including a few costly ones, so as to constitute, at a total outlay of £4000, a distinctly important collection, yet one not aiming at minor varieties of type, mint, date, and other detail.

Moreover, outside such an estimate must lie innumerable coins in all series, principally accidental rarities commanding factitious prices; but it would scarcely exclude anything of substantial value and interest. To take an illustration from the English series, it would comprise the *Oxford*, *Petition*, and *Reddite* crowns.

Such a numismatic gathering would be approximately thus apportioned:—

	No. of Pieces.	No. of Metals.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Average Aggregate.
			s. d.	£	£
Greek	250	5	1 0	20	500
Roman	250	3	0 3	20	400
Byzantine	50	3	0 6	10	50
Continental—					
Germany	300	5 or 6	0 3	20	300
Swedish, Danish, and Norwegian	100	...	0 6	20	100
Netherlands	200	...	0 3	20	250
Italy, Two Sicilies	300	...	...	...	300
Knights of Malta	50	3	...	...	75
France	300	5 or 6	...	...	300
Spain	100	3	...	...	150
Portugal	100	4 or 5	...	...	150
United Kingdom—					
British	25	3 or 4	2 0	15	75
Anglo-Saxon	50	2	2 6	25	100
Anglo-Norman	150	1	2 6	15	75
Plantagenet	150	2	1 0	15	100
Tudor	150	3	1 0	25	150
Two Stuart Periods	200	5 or 6	1 0	20	300
Commonwealth and Protectorate	25	2	3 6	20	50
Hanoverian	250	3	1 0	10	250
Colonial	150	5 or 6	1 0	10	100

We here attain a total of 3050 coins in all metals, and of all European regions and European Colonial settlements, belonging to every period, the Greek and Roman inclusive, and we arrive at an estimatal cost of £2775, or average throughout of about 18s. But we have to take into consideration that this is a miscellaneous selection at which we are looking, and that even then we do not comprise such examples of high price as the *Petition crown*, the *Oxford crown*, any Greek or Roman or Continental pieces of super-

lative importance, or the Oriental class; so that, these contingencies provided for, the result will be what we above mentioned, £4000.

A purely Greek collection is not unfrequently a special line, and when we enter on this field with the plan before us of representing in a cabinet the varied productions of all the autonomous regions into which ancient Hellas divided itself, we quickly discover that the chief difficulty lies in drawing a line, beyond which we will not go, in regard to specimens of given localities or examples of given types.

No two Greek coins exactly correspond; the varieties arise from the methods of production, or from the use of more than one die; and it is obviously out of the question for an ordinary amateur to regard these technical minutiæ, unless he has a special object in view. For we know that this series is capable of yielding within its own limits an infinite number of fields for study in the coins of a particular place, or even of that place during a particular period.

Now let us suppose, not an enterprise of this very restricted character, but one confined to Greek money generally. The country which we are considering, with its dependencies or colonies, included in ancient times the following divisions, as we note elsewhere:—

In Europe—	Italia.	Thessaly.
Hispania.	Sicilia.	Illyria.
Gallia.	Macedonia.	Epirus.
Britannia.	Thrace.	Corcyra.

In Europe—
Acarnania.
Ætolia.
Locris.
Phocis.
Bœotia.
Eubœa.
Attica.
Megaris.
Ægina.
Corinthia.
Peloponesus.
Crete.
Cyclades and Sporades.

In Asia—
Bosporus.
Colchis.
Pontus.
Paphlagonia.
Bithynia.
Mysia.
Troas.
Æolis.
Lesbos.
Ionia.
Caria.
Lydia.
Phrygia.
Lycia.
Pamphylia.
Pisidia.
Lycaonia.
Cilicia.
Cyprus.
Galatia.
Cappadocia.
Armenia.
Syria.
Arabia.
Mesopotamia.
Babylonia.
Assyria.
Parthia.
Persia.
Bactria.

In Africa—
Ægypt.
Æthiopia.
Cyrene.
Libya.
Syrtica.
Byzacene.
Zeugitana.
Numidia.
Mauritania.

No person of average insight into the subject will be surprised to hear that there is no collection in the world which can boast of possessing anything approximate to a complete assemblage of the coins of this vast and fruitful numismatic area, or that to approach within a considerable distance of that result would demand a very large fortune. But on a basis far more comprehensive, as being a special principle of research, than our former scheme, we proceed to compute the probable extent and cost of a Greek cabinet.

There are no fewer than 63 geographical divisions requiring our attention; in several of them the products are not costly, of a few scarcely any are known,

but, on the contrary, each of these divisions embraces numerous mints. Broadly speaking, a Greek *gold* or *electrum* coin fetches from £1 to £20, one in silver (size, unless it is the 10-*drachma* or *dekadrachm*, not material) from 3s. 6d. to £10, and one in bronze from 1s. to £1 or 30s. Many Greek States and cities struck no *gold* or *electrum*; certain places had only bronze. Receiving all these points into calculation, we may tabulate a Greek collection thus:—

No. of Countries.	No. of Mints.	No. of Coins of each Mint.	Range of Prices.	Average Cost of each Coin.
63	630	6	1s. to £20	10s.

This gives 6300 coins for £3150. But the estimate cannot be regarded as guaranteeing certain exceptional rarities, while it would probably allow for all pieces of real interest and consequence. So we find ourselves drawing near to the same figures as before—that is to say, to the same cost for one class of coins on a larger scale as for every class on a limited one.

Again, take a collection dedicated exclusively to ancient Roman money, and from a table it will become apparent that, on the whole, it will prove less costly, at a modest level, or (in other words) not aiming at too many of the gold series, than either of the two preceding experiments.

There are three periods: Regal, Consular, Imperial; of which the first is concerned with the *as* and its

parts or multiples only; and we may therefore practically look on this great branch of numismatics as Consular and Imperial, the Regal section amounting to a few specimens of the primitive bronze money:—

Denominations.	No. of Examples.	Cost of Ordinary Coins.	Maximum Cost of Fine, Rare, or Patinated Coins.
Silver denarius . .	250	6*s.*	21*s.*
,, quinarius . .	50	6*s.*	21*s.*
,, victoriatus . .	50	21*s.*	42*s.*
Gold sestertius . .	10	£3. 10*s.*	£6. 6*s.*
,, aureus . . .	150	25*s.* to 42*s.*	£10 to £20
,, medallion . .	6	£5	£25
Bronze—First size .	100	30*s.*	£25
,, Second size . .	250	6*s.*	30*s.* to £2
,, Third size . .	500	1*s.* to 5*s.*	£5 (extreme)
,, medallions . .	6	£10	£50

About 1370 moderate coins in all metals would thus cost about £910, to which add for specimens of the *as* £10 or £20 more, which brings us to £930. But for satisfactory specimens, and in the brass series a fair representation of *patina*, we have to reckon, not perhaps the *maximum* estimate above given, but something between, and we see that the same number of coins is not to be obtained under £2500.

Much of the difference lies here in (i.) rarity; (ii.) general condition; (iii.) patination; the last a feature common to the Greek bronze, but not in so essential a degree.

Once more, an undertaking directed to a tolerably complete series and sequence of Continental money in

all the metals is one which is bound to prove more onerous and expensive than either the Greek or the Roman, owing to the magnitude of the subject and the heavy proportion of rarities. This is most readily perceived by an actual demonstration, which must be treated as approximate :—

Country.	No. of Divisions.	No. of Towns with Mints.	No. of Specimens of each Mint.	Ordinary State, per Coin (Average).	Fine State, per Coin (Average).
				s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*
North Germany . . .	35	350	4	3 0	5 0
South Germany . . .	10	50 to 60	6	3 0	5 0
Hungary, with Switzerland	19	25	3	3 0	10 0
Poland	3	10	6	3 0	10 0
Russia	1	6	10	3 0	10 0
Danubian Provinces .	6	12	4	3 0	10 0
Latin Empire	1	6	6	3 0	7 6
Greece	1	3	6	3 0	7 6
Turkey in Europe . .	1	3	6	3 0	7 6
Northern Kingdoms .	4	30	6	3 0	15 0
Netherlands (Northern)	25	50	6	3 0	15 0
Netherlands (Southern)	25	50	6	3 0	15 0
Italy (Northern) . . .	26	50	6	3 0	10 0
Italy (Southern) . . Sicily	3	12	10	3 0	10 0
Knights of Malta . .	1	3	10	6 0	15 0
France—					
Regal coinage . . .	1	50	4	2 0	15 0
Feudal coinage . .	28	100	4	2 0	15 0
Spain	6	25	6	2 0	15 0
Portugal	1	6	10	3 0	15 0

From this statement, which is professedly experimental, although founded on actual experience, the following statistics are deducible :—

Country.	No. of Specimens.	Coins.	
		Ordinary Coins.	Fine Coins.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.
North Germany . . .	1,400	90 0 0	350 0 0
South Germany . . .	300	£45 to £50	£75 to £80
Switzerland . . .	75	11 5 0	37 10 0
Poland	60	9 0 0	30 0 0
Russia	60	9 0 0	30 0 0
Danubian Provinces .	48	7 4 0	24 0 0
Latin Empire	36	5 8 0	13 10 0
Greece	18	2 4 0	5 15 0
Turkey in Europe . .	18	2 4 0	5 15 0
Northern Kingdoms .	180	27 0 0	235 0 0
Northern Netherlands .	300	45 0 0	225 0 0
Southern Netherlands .	300	45 0 0	225 0 0
Northern States . . .	300	45 0 0	150 0 0
Southern States . . .	120	18 0 0	60 0 0
Sicily			
Knights of Malta . .	30	9 0 0	22 10 0
Regal France	200	20 0 0	150 0 0
Feudal France . . .	400	40 0 0	300 0 0
Spain	150	15 0 0	112 10 0
Portugal	60	9 0 0	45 0 0

The nett ultimate outcome is that a Continental collection of 5955 coins, more or less, may be expected to cost, according to the state of preservation, from £450 to £2000, or thereabout, the immense disparity proceeding from the instantaneous rise in the tariff for fine coins and the prevailing poverty of state.

Then, owing to the so vastly greater extent of ground here represented and covered, the commercial anomalies are naturally more numerous, and in order to comprise—which is really politic, and stamps a collection with a character and prestige—a handful of the gems, which occur in all, or almost all, the series, it may be well to calculate on laying out a supple-

mentary £500, or altogether, taking the higher scale, £2500—the estimated cost of a miscellaneous cabinet.

Finally, the collector who may choose to content himself with English, or at least British coins, is in a position, as a matter of course, to enter far more at large, than if he was a general buyer, into the respective series. Let us tabulate:—

	No. of Coins.
British—	
Uninscribed	210
Inscribed	20
Anglo-Saxon—	
Sceattæ	20
Stycas	20
Pennies	100
Anglo-Norman	100
Plantagenets	100
Tudors	100
First Stuart Period	100
Commonwealth	50
Protectorate	20
Second Stuart Period	150
Hanoverian to Victoria	200
Anglo-Hanoverian	50
Colonial—	
India	30
America	30
West Indies	50
Australasia	30
Dependencies—	
Channel Islands	30
Isle of Man	30
Scotland	60
Ireland	30
	1530

These pieces would be in gold, silver, mixed metal, copper, tin, pewter, lead, and here and there in electrum. The total must strike any one as very inconsiderable; but we are not allowing for varieties of date, mintage, and other subsidiary particulars; we are merely looking at the means and cost of bringing together a representative gathering of the older currencies of this country, carrying them down to the present time; and unless one aspires to form an accumulation similar to that of Mr. Montagu, which is a question of cost and of policy, what more is to be desired than a series substantially complete, in which no positive type or denomination is overlooked?

THE COLLECTOR SERIES

Great collections of every class have always owed their extent to the presence of thousands of virtual duplicates in the shape of variants; and it must be so when it is recollected that the denominations issued in Great Britain, even reckoning different pieces similarly named from the time of the British period to Victoria, do not exceed seventy. It follows that about 1530 items really represent all that one can have of the numismatic products of Britain from the earliest period to the present.

	Denominations.
British Series—	
Stater, third stater and half stater, and say six other weights in different metals . . .	9
Anglo-Saxon—	
Penny and halfpenny	2
Anglo-Norman—	
Add the farthing	1
Plantagenets—	
Add florin, half and quarter noble, half and quarter angel, half and quarter ryal and double ryal, groat and half groat . . .	13
Tudors—	
Add sovereign, double sovereign and triple sovereign, half-sovereign, crown and half-crown, in gold; crown and half-crown, shilling, sixpence, threepence, three halfpence, and three farthings in silver, penny in copper . .	14
Stuarts—	
Add Laurel and half, Unit, Britain crown, Thistle crown, Rose rial, Spur rial, 30s.-piece, 15s.-piece, guinea, half and quarter, two and five guineas, in gold; the 20s. and 10s. Oxford pieces in silver; the halfpenny in copper and Maundy money	21
Commonwealth and Protectorate—	
Add broad and half and 50s. in gold . . .	3
Hanoverian—	
Add two and five pounds and 7s. pieces in gold, florin and double florin in silver, and penny and twopence in copper	7
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In the foregoing estimate (1530) the Anglo-Gallic series (see present volume, pp. 171, 176, 183, 192) is not included; and it must be confessed that it almost equally present difficulties, and a disproportionate augmentation of outlay, in case the object is to acquire fine examples.

In regard to the coinage of Scotland, one singularity is that the denominations from the eleventh century to the Union surpass in number those of England from the fifth or sixth century to the present day; and a tolerably safe guide in selection is the principle of confining oneself to pieces in good preservation in the respective metals, not omitting to provide for such reigns and names as John Baliol, Robert Bruce, and Mary, and coins of historical interest, such as the *Bonnet-piece* of 1539, the *Cruickston Dollar* of 1565, &c. One hundred representative Scotish coins in all metals should be obtainable for £150, and such a total of specimens would comprise every denomination, there being about ninety. Of the Anglo-Gallic money we have supplied some statistics elsewhere.

Yet an aggregate of 1530, as suggested, is capable of putting the owner in possession of a thoroughly good national collection, not from the point of view of the British Museum, but from that of an average private individual. Having regard, however, to the large quota of gold types, and other high-priced articles, especially in the Stuart groups, we should err in estimating the cost at less than £3000, of which

three pieces, the *Oxford*, *Petition*, and *Reddite* crowns would at once absorb £450.

So, upon the whole, it seems that to become a master of any of the four sorts of collections which we have sketched out, one must be prepared to disburse from £2500 to £4000. But the expenditure would be gradual, even slow; so many of the pieces are not of frequent occurrence.

IX

TERMINOLOGY

A. b. c. Assez-bien conservé—An expression which often occurs in foreign numismatic catalogues, and which constitutes a matter of taste or opinion.

Agonistic, adj.—Connected with the public games of Greece. The prize-money awarded to victors.

Agonothetes—An officer sometimes named on the ancient Phrygian money in connection with the public games.

Aigret, or heron's crest—An almost invariable adjunct on the heads of the Waiwodes of Transylvania.

Alliance coins—Money struck by the Greeks pursuant to a concordat between two or more cities, either for mercantile convenience or under some political emergency. (See Head, *Historia Numorum*, lxxvii.) We have money of the Italian and Achæan Leagues, which were of political origin, and other currency common to two or three cities; in which there seems to be

no violence or rashness in discerning an analogy and prototype to the modern European convention-money.

Alpha et Omega—An allegorical symbol found on many mediæval coins. (See Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," pp. 61, 182.) The symbol also occurs in the Anglo-Saxon series on the pennies of Ceolwulf of Mercia, Edward the Martyr, and Ethelred II.

Amphictiones—A term found on a silver autonomous coin of Delphi. These institutions appear to have been tribal meetings at some central point in primitive times, for the purposes of common religious cults and social intercourse. They usually met in a temple or sanctuary.

Anepigraphic—Without a legend.

Angel—A gold coin of the St. Michael type, similar to those found in the Continental series. It first occurs in the 5th Edward IV., and was carried down to the reign of Elizabeth with the half and the fourth. Certain pieces attributed to Edward V. have as m.m. a boar's head, or a rose and sun united, or the two, one on either side. In the Pembroke collection was a six-angel piece in gold, weight 480 grains, supposed to be a pattern, and considered unique; it belongs to the 4th Edward VI. (See Keary's edition of Henfrey, 1885, p. 51.)

Angelet—The half-angel, as well as a gold piece of Henry VI. in the Anglo-Gallic series.

Anglo-American money—The currency struck for the American dependencies and settlements from the time of Elizabeth (if we include the portcullis series of 1600–1601) till the declaration of independence in 1776. The series embraces the Sommers Islands, the Massachusetts, the Maryland, the Virginian, the Connecticut, and New York coins and tokens, and those of Canada.

Anglo-Gallic money—The series of coins struck in France by the English rulers of portions of that country from Henry II., in right of his wife, Eleonore d'Aquitaine, to Henry VIII., including those of the Regent Bedford. It is still a doubtful question whether King John struck money for Poitou. The latest Anglo-Gallic coins are the Tournay groats of Henry VIII. (See Akerman's "Numismatic Manual," 1840, pp. 367–392.)

Anglo-Indian money—The currency struck for Bombay, Madras, &c., by English sovereigns from Charles II. to Victoria.

Arc or *lobe*—The division of a tressure or epicycloid, which is a common form of enclosure for the type on early English and foreign coins; the number of arcs varies.

Archon—The chief magistrate of a city, whose name appears on Greek coins struck during his term of office.

Ark of Noah is delineated literally as a chest with two inmates on the reverse of a coin of Apameia, in

Phrygia, of the Roman imperial period. (See Head, *Historia Numorum*, p. 558.)

Asiarchus—The president of the public games, whose name appears on Greek coins, perhaps those intended for agonistic purposes.

Association—A political or constitutional principle, borrowed by the Romans from the East in the later period of the Empire, and followed by the kings of Italy (Emperors of the West), Doges of Venice, &c., in mediæval times. Usually in Europe the son was joined in the government with his father, as the latter advanced in years, in order to secure the succession; but we also find in Italy and Germany brothers, cousins, and other kindred associated in this way, and occasionally the mother and son ruled together during a minority. In the Italian imperial series of the eighth century we meet on the coinage with traces of this practice, as, for instance, a denier reads on obverse *Lvdowicvs Imp.*, and on reverse *Angilberga Imp.*, to signify the regency and guardianship of the Empress Angilberga, while her son Louis II. remained under age (855); and in another way a coin of the same series and class, of the *Christiana religio* type, struck at Pavia, reads *Vgo Lohtariv*, to denote the joint administration of Hugo and Lothair (931–946).

Atkinson—The name of the principal mint-master of Scotland under the government of the Earl of Mor-

ton (sixteenth century), during the minority of James VI., and hence of the copper pieces struck under his authority.

Auriga—A charioteer.

Autonomous—The right to strike money without external licence.

Banco—An artificial and usually reduced standard of currency. (See Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 184.) This system, like that embodied in the terms *courant* and *species*, has fallen into disuse.

Bar—The archaistic money, usually in bronze, struck by the Low Countries for Java, in deference to the local or native predilection. An analogous class of coinage was employed for Ceylon.

Barbel—The name of a fish found on the money of the Counts and Dukes of Bar and Lorraine and Bar.

Basel—The designation given to certain Swiss coins, doubtless of billon, of which the currency in England was prohibited under Henry II.

Bawbee—A billon piece, first struck under this name by James V., with the half. Said to be derived from *bas-billon*. It seldom occurs in fine condition. There is a rather rude Scotish pleasantry about *Jenny's bawbee*.

Besant—(i.) A gold coin in the Byzantine series;

(ii.) a silver coin in the same series. Without being part of the Venetian currency, the gold *besant* was, before money in that metal or silver of higher value became available, admitted in payment at the Saturday markets at Venice.

Biga—A Greek or Roman two-horse chariot.

Billon, otherwise *potin*—Mixed metal, usually plated or washed with silver. It was a practice adopted by the later Parthian rulers, by some of the Roman emperors in their *denarii*, and by a majority of the European states of more recent date.

Bit—The centre of the Spanish-American dollar, countermarked to pass for the multiple of three *bits* in British Guiana; the remainder of the piece was made current for three guilders, and both were stamped *E. & D.*, for Essequibo and Demerara. This primitive and inconvenient system was not suspended till 1809, when the British Government introduced a very handsome series of silver and copper money for this dependency. Compare *Joe*.

Black money—The *zwaart* or *denier noir* of certain states of the Continent, which was imported into England, and, with a coating of white metal, made to pass as silver. It forms the subject of statutes and proclamations in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.

Bodle—Scotish copper currency under Charles II., 1677 (new coinage), and William and Mary, 1691–94. The word is said to be a corruption of *Bothwell*, and perhaps the *bawbee* may have been known as the *bodle* as early as the time of Mary I., although the two are of distinct types.

Bonnet-piece—With the two-thirds and one-third, a gold coin of James V. of Scotland, 1539–40. It is the earliest dated piece in this series, and is of unusually thick fabric and artistic execution; it exhibits a life-like portrait of James with the bonnet.

Bonus Eventus—A symbolical representation found on many Roman coins under the form of a youthful naked figure holding a patera and ears of corn.

Borodoraia—The Russian beard-money, which, however, is to be regarded as a token rather than as coinage. It was first introduced under Peter the Great.

Box-thaler—The variety is usually confined to certain German states, but also found in Savoy, where the coin opens as a box, and contains objects inside, sometimes of an erotic complexion. There is a piece of eighty *lire* in gold, of Carlo Felice, king of Sardinia, 1826, enclosing four counters in platinum for the game of ombre.

Bracteate—A term which has been explained in Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 186–187. It occurs

sparingly in gold and copper, but is very plentiful in silver, and of every gradation of art, from a mere piece of metal foil without any type, to comparatively fine work with well-executed portraits and regular legends. The *bracteate* was spread over a very extensive area—North and South Germany, Bohemia, Hungary, Poland, Switzerland, Northern Netherlands, Lombardy, &c. There was a modification of it, or semi-bracteate production, struck under the Lombard kings and the Emperors of the West at Milan, Pavia, Lucca, Mantua, and other points down to the twelfth century. The subjects introduced on the face of the bracteate proper are innumerable, but they seem to be, in the case of those of later date, copies of ordinary coins rather than prototypes. That of the twelfth century of Mayence, of large module and superior independent work, with an inscription (see Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 186–187), is uniface and purely bracteate in character. A few present themselves without any type.

Brass, first, second, and third—The three normal divisions of the Roman bronze or copper currency. But in some of the reigns irregular sizes or dimensions often occur, and the weight of pieces in this metal was rendered uncertain and arbitrary by the occasional employment of thicker flans, the prototype of the modern European piedfort. (Comp. *Minimi*.)

Breite-groschen, pfenning, or *thaler*—The widespread type, as distinguished from the *dick* or thick.

British mints—Canterbury, Cirencester, Colchester, London, Richborough, Silchester, Verulam, and, of course, many others not identified.

Broad, with the half—The name given to the twenty-shilling piece in gold of the Protector Cromwell, and of the first and second issues of Charles II., 1660–61.

Broad pieces—The old widespread gold money of England, as distinguished from the more modern fabric.

Brunswick—Henry the Lion, Duke of Brunswick, who married as his second wife Matilda, daughter of Henry II. of England, and reigned from 1139 to 1195, struck deniers of a bracteate fabric, of which one, found at Brunswick in 1756, exhibits a lion passing under an archway. From the above-named union the present royal family of Great Britain is descended. On a *denier* of Otto V., Duke of Bavaria (1180–83), Henry of Brunswick appears standing and in armour, attended by a lion.

Carpentum—A covered carriage, used at Rome under the republic only by privileged persons, and even later reserved for ladies of high rank and for religious observances. It occurs on first brass coins of Agrippina, &c. The Roman *carpentum* was borrowed from the still ruder Babylonian vehicle, also delineated on coins.

Causia—A felt broad-brimmed hat, seen on the coins

of the kings of Macedon, and subsequently introduced among the Romans.

Chiton—A sort of under-vest worn by figures on Greek coins; it was originally a short woollen garment without sleeves, but afterward developed, in some parts of Greece, into a long linen one with sleeves. (See Smith, v. *Tunica.*)

Christiana Religio—A legend found on Frankish coins of the Carolingian era, with and without the temple. It was thought necessary to associate the words with the more or less rudimentary building, which had constituted part of the type of many pagan coins. A denier bearing this legend, ascribed to Louis le Debonnaire, and struck at Milan, omits the temple, and is of semi-bracteate fabric.

Circle, double and triple—The *gros tournois* of Louis IX. of France (*circâ* 1250), who is generally supposed to have first introduced the form, which afforded new facilities to the moneyer in arranging and distributing his legends, as well as in amplifying them; and we find cases where, even long after the abandonment of the type, this principle was found convenient, as, for instance, on the coronation-daler of John III. of Sweden, 1568. But, in fact, the principle of a double circle occurs on an obolus of Otho I., 936–973, struck for Verona. In France itself this variety of the *gros* underwent modification in the

reign of Charles VI. (1380–1422) by the substitution of three *lis* for the *chatel*. A double circle also occurs on a Southwark penny of Henry I. of England.

Cistophoros—A silver coin of ancient Greece, struck by several cities in alliance, and by the Romans after the conquest of Greece, exhibiting a common type, the mystic *cista* or basket, from which a serpent escapes, a symbol significant of the widely prevailing worship of Bacchus in Asia. These interesting pieces are common, having been struck in very large numbers from about 200 B.C. to about 48 B.C. It was a species of federal currency, and long formed, with the Attic tetradrachm and the gold Macedonian stater, the staple medium.

Clipped, Fr. *rogné*—A term applied to coins of which the edges have been trimmed for the sake of the metal or otherwise. The guinea of George III. of Great Britain was struck with the legend so arranged as to prevent this abuse. But the appearance of having been clipped is often communicated to old coins by the original insufficiency of the flan.

Consecratio—A common type and legend on the Roman gold, silver, and brass money, referring to the favourite usage of paying divine honours to deceased or living rulers. The idea proceeded from the desire of the reigning dynasty to strengthen itself by identification with supposed deified predecessors and kinsfolk. Where there are busts, they are usually veiled.

Continental names—The forms of Continental names of places and persons are somewhat different in different writers and works, and it is difficult to decide on a uniform orthography. Of the termination for fortified positions, or at least localities which owe their designation to having been originally strongholds, we have, for instance, four variants:—*Burg*, *Burgh*, *Borg*, *Berg*.

Contorniatus, or *Numi contorniati*—A peculiar class of Roman medallions, rather than coins, of special module, and with peculiar characteristics, of which the application seems to be uncertain. See Stevenson *in v.*

Contrefaçon—An imitation or counterfeit.

Convention-money—A legacy from the monetary system of the ancients, who had similarly their *alliance-coins*. Comp. also *Bundesthaler* and *Vereinsmünze*, *Dreilander* and *Vierlander*, in Hazlitt's "Coins of Europe." The earliest modern European convention-money appears to be that of 1240, unless the treaty between Brabant, Limburg, and Louvain (1006–15) was really such an arrangement: see Hazlitt's "Coins of Europe," p. 384. The half daalder of 1580, on a square flan, reads on obverse *Trivm · Civi · Impe · Daven · Campen · Zwol*, and bears in the field the arms of the three towns and the date, and on the reverse the double-headed eagle and imperial titles. There are thalers of the same series with the portrait of Charles V., but without his titles. The coinage issued during the

Thirty Years' War in the name of the Protestant princes, 1634, falls under this head.

Corrosion—The destruction of the surface of a bronze or copper coin by exposure to atmospheric and chemical effects.

Courant—A term found on the Norwegian and Danish money, and apparently employed to distinguish the normal internal currency from that used in commerce.

Cross—A symbol which in different forms presents itself on European coins from a very remote period, and was obviously intended to constitute part of a scheme by which the currency of a country was made the vehicle for keeping before the people general and local objects of worship, the authority of the Church, and the intimate bond between the latter and the temporal ruler. The chief varieties of cross are: the Greek cross, with the four limbs of equal length; the Latin cross, with the lower arm lengthened, the others equal; the Maltese cross or cross of Jerusalem, with four equal limbs expanded at end; the cross of St. Stephen, as on the *piastro* of Etruria, 1587; the croix de Bourgogne, somewhat similar to the St. Andrew's cross (its origin is referred back to the prehistoric annals of that ancient kingdom, and it is probably the prototype of the Brunswick, Scotish, and Russian varieties); St Andrew's cross, the Greek cross resting on two of the

limbs; croix pattée, with the terminal expanded like the Maltese cross; croix fourchée, cross with forked terminals; cross crosslet, cross with limbs rearward; cross pommée, with globular ends; cross raguled or ragged cross, cross foliate from centre to end of limbs; cross voided, cross with the arms hollowed; cross potent or potencé, cross with the ends resembling a crutch; cross triplée, cross with the ends in the form of a trefoil, &c. A *cross moline* appears on an English penny of Edward I., in one quarter of reverse being the armorial cognisance of Beck, Bishop of Durham. This symbol was, as we know, adopted on some of the money of the later Roman emperors from Constantine the Great, whence it found its way to Italy, the Low Countries, and the rest of Europe. It appears on the coin of Justinian II., where he styles himself *Servus Christi.*

Crown—A gold coin, with the half and the quarter, struck by Henry VIII., 18th year (second issue), and continued down to Charles I., with numerous variations, and also for Scotland. James I. struck the double crown, the Britain crown and half, and the Thistle crown.

Crown—A silver coin of England, first struck under Edward VI., 1551, and the second dated piece in the English series. The so-called pattern crown of Henry VIII. is now generally treated as a medal. The most celebrated crowns are the Oxford crown, 1644, the *Petition* crown of Charles II., engraved by Simon, and

the *Reddite* crown of the same reign. At a sale in London a Petition crown in red morocco case, and in the finest state, was bought by Spink & Son for the record figure of £500. But several exist.

Crown—A gold coin of Mary I. of Scotland, 1561.

Crown and *Standard Gold*—These expressions were used to distinguish the relative purity of the money of Henry VIII. in this metal of the second issue, the former being 22 and the latter 23 carats. By the arrangements made in 1st Elizabeth, the crown gold was maintained at 22 carats, and the standard gold was raised to 23 carats 3½ grs., and out of a pound of gold were coined 24 thirty-shilling pieces, 48 rials, 72 angels, or 144 half-angels.

Crusaders (*Empire of the*)—There is a half-gros of Bohemond VII., struck for Tripoli (1274–87) in Sch. xxvi. 778; but the piece was poorly preserved. Lord Grantley recently purchased of a dealer at Athens about 6000 coins belonging to this series, and speaks of arranging and tabulating them.

Cunnetti—The word found on a plentiful series of silver pennies of the ninth and tenth centuries, with many variations in the type, of which the place of origin is still undetermined. (See Hawkins, 1887, p. 81–84.)

Curator or *Hepimeletes*—A term found on certain coins of Lydia and Caria. The Romans had *Curatores* of the public games, to whom the inscription of the name on coins would most probably refer.

Daric—A gold and silver denomination of Persia, both of thick amorphous fabric, and alike representing a kneeling archer or half-length figure, with bow, spear, or dagger in hand to right. There is no legend, and the reverse is incuse in both cases. Of the gold there is the double. There are several varieties. The gold daric is supposed to have been first struck about the middle of the sixth century B.C., the double in the fourth century about 331 B.C., perhaps by Alexander the Great after the battle of Arbela. It seems to be generally agreed that large numbers were melted down by Philip of Macedon to furnish the bullion for his own *staters*. The word is taken to be independent of the name of Darius, having been known in Persia before his time as a measure of value, if not as a coin.

Dates on coins—The insertion of a chronological mark or word on coins was a practice known to the ancients, but carried out by them on their money in a different method from that pursued by the more modern sovereigns of Europe. It may be said that in principle the notation of date is referable back to the coinage of Hellas; and the Romans still more frequently indicated the year of issue by identifying it with the consulship or other regnal term. In the later

European monetary economy the earliest examples of dated pieces seem to commence with the Ostrogothic princes in the sixth century, who placed on their bronze *nummi* the regnal year; in the first half of the eighth century the money of the Moorish kings of Granada, struck in Europe, bears the year of the Hegira, a practice continued by the kings of Castile till the twelfth century, the Mohammedan inscriptions being retained, and the king's name in an abbreviated form inserted in the field. In Southern Italy, a region then equally with parts of Spain under Oriental influence and government, Roger II. (1105–54) put on his gold coins the date in this way: *An[no] R[egni] X.* Again, there are the curious Toulousan coins of 1238, consisting of the *livra* and its divisions, and the groschen of the St. Charlemagne type of Aix-la-Chapelle of 1374–1421, the Swiss *plappart* of 1424, the Palatinate gold ducat of 1437, and the *jagers* of Groningen from 1439. The first dated money of other European states may be tabulated as follows:—

Antwerp, 1475.	Denmark, 1496.	Saluzzo, 1503.
Austria, 1479.	Brittany, 1498.	Savoy, 1508.
Berg, 1482 (gold in 1492).	Bishops of Utrecht, 1498.	Breslau, 1513.
East Friesland, 1483.	Brandenburg, 1500.	Mansfeld, 1514.
Lofraine, 1488.	Hesse, 1502.	Scotland, 1539.
Berne, 1492.		England, 1547.

The year of issue, where it is added to ancient pieces is inserted either in Roman or Arabic numerals, and occurs indifferently, as the engraver found space or

thought fit, in the outer circle, field, or exergue. It often demands close scrutiny to detect the presence of the figures, especially where they are divided and in a minute character. Sometimes, as on the money of East Friesland, Poland, and the Low Countries, the registration is limited to the decade, 83 standing for 1483, 96 for 1596, whereas in the portcullis coinage of Elizabeth of England 0 and 1 represent 1600 and 1601.

Dei Gratiâ—A formula which occurs on money of Charles le Chauve (840–875), Eudes (887–898), &c. *Deniers* of Louis II. and III. bear *Misericordiâ Domini*; one of Hugues, son of Robert II., reads, *Domini dextra*. On some of the *testons* of Henry III. of France, and of Jeanne d'Albret, Queen of Navarre, 1570–76, occurs *Gratia . Dei . Sum . Quod . Sum*—a legend perhaps derived from Navarre. The first use of this term in England appears to have been by Richard II. Even the Protector Cromwell inserted it on his money. A loud outcry was raised because the words were omitted on the silver florin of 1848–9, and a new type was substituted, although on many of the coins of the Georges the *D. G.* is absent. It was a foolish clamour about an idea which is being gradually discredited abroad.

Demy—A term applied to the gold *lion* of 20 grs., struck under Robert II. of Scotland, the *lion* itself weighing 40, or more usually 38 grs. The *half-lions* of James I. and II. were heavier (about 25 grs.).

Denarius—The silver Roman piece of 10 *asses*, first struck about B.C. 269, and the prototype of a manifold succession of coins both in silver, billon, and copper in the modern European series. There were the half or *quinarius*, the quarter or *sestertius*, the *libella* or tenth, the *umbella* or *half-libella*, and the *teruncius* or *quarter-libella*. Of the *denarii* of some of the later emperors not only the purity fluctuated, but the module and weight, which in one of Caracalla of a reduced standard of silver are nearly equivalent to two *denarii* of the fine silver coins of earlier and later date.

Die—The metal plate from which the type was transferred by the hammer or mill to the flan.

Disc, *flan*, or *blank*—The piece of metal which received the coin-type. In early coins of all countries it is often too small for the die.

Discus—A quoit, first of stone and subsequently of metal, used by the Greeks, and occasionally represented on coins in the hands of athletes.

Dodkin—A diminutive *dod* or *doit*. "Not worth a dodkin" seems to have been a variant form of "Not worth a farthing."

Dollar—A silver denomination of Scotland, commencing with the *sword-dollar* or thirty-shilling piece of James VI. (1567–71). There are the two-thirds and the one-third dollar. A sword erect occupies the field on

the reverse. The double merk of James VI. (1578) is also known as the *Thistle-dollar*. Charles II. (second coinage, 1675–82) struck the dollar, half, quarter, eighth, and sixteenth. All these are scarce in fine state. The *holey* or *ring-dollar* was the name given to the remainder of the Spanish piece of eight, when the centre had been cut out to form the dump; the former was current for 5s. and the latter for 1s. 3d. in New South Wales in 1813.

Drachma—The unit of the ancient Greek silver coinage. There are didrachms, tridrachms, tetradrachms, pentadrachms, hexadrachms, octadrachms, decadrachms, and dodecadrachms, with the hemidrachms and octadrachms in gold belonging to a different standard, and no single monetary system possessed all the silver we have specified. The *tridrachm* is also known in the ancient Roman consular coinage, the silver *denarius* being in fact originally based on the Greek piece. The drachma with its moiety and multiples constitutes the monetary standard in the two higher metals of the modern kingdom of Greece.

Ducat—Both in the Dutch and German series we find gold money expressly so called, as in the case of the florin. Two double ducats of Philip II. of Spain struck for Zeeland are described as *Dvcatvs. Co.* or *Com. Zel.* or *Ze. Val. His.* or *Hisp.*, whence it may be inferred that the Spanish Netherlands were required to accept

the monetary standard of that country at this period (about 1570). Specimens of the Venetian silver ducat of the later issues, and of the half and quarter ducat, occasionally occur, struck in gold. There is a Harz gold ducat of George III. for Hanover, 1818, and of George IV., 1821.

Ducat—A term applied to the gold coin of Mary I. of Scotland, struck in 1558 during her union with the Dauphin. The moiety was ordered, but does not seem to be known.

Dump—(i.) The thick small halfpenny of George I. (1717–18); (ii.) the silver token for 1s. 3d. of New South Wales (1813), cut out of the centre of a Spanish dollar.

Duro—The Spanish dollar was also known under the name of *cob* at Jamaica. The word is thought to be derived from a Spanish slang phrase *coba* = *real*.

Ecu—A gold coin of Scotland, suggested by the French one, first struck under James V. in 1525, and again by his daughter Mary in 1543. A pattern piece of the same type, with the name of the former, weight 87·8 grs., of a larger module, is known.

Ekton or *hecte, with the half, the sixth, and twelfth*—Parts of the gold stater of ancient Greece.

Electrum—A natural amalgam of gold and silver, brought into use by the Greeks at a very early period as a medium more suitable, on account of its hardness and durability, than pure gold for the purposes of coinage; but in estimating its relation to the higher metal its composite character has to be taken into account. It continued in occasional employment at a later period by the Merovingian moneyers of the seventh century.

English and Scotish legends and mottoes—These partake of the empirical and insincere character of those found on the money of the Continent, and, with certain exceptions, as the *Declaration*, *Petition*, and *Reddite* types, have no historical value. The reverse legend on a silver *testoon* of Mary I. of Scotland (1561) is curious: *Domine . Salvvm . Fac . Popvlvm . Tvvm.*

Ephor—The name of an officer found on an autonomous coin of Lacedæmon.

Eponym—The term usually applied where the name of a locality is traditionally derived from that of a person—usually a mythical one.

Essai—A pattern or trial-piece.

Exergue—The space on a coin below the linear boundary of the space occupied by the field. There are many coins so struck as to leave no room for the

exergue, which, where it exists, contains the date, place of origin, value, &c., according to circumstances.

Farthing—(i.) The fourth part of a silver penny, first struck under Edward I. for England, although John had coined this denomination as Lord of Ireland. A farthing of Henry IV., from the Highbury find, was sold at Sotheby's, July 10, 1894, for £15, 15s.; it was described as unique. (ii.) A copper denomination, first struck for Ireland under Elizabeth, under Charles I. as a token, and under his son as a current coin. There are several patterns of the latter reign, of which one is in the Hunterian Museum at Glasgow. Some of the farthings of Charles II. are of tin mixed with lead.

Ferding or *maille noble* — The quarter-noble of Edward III. This is the "gold farthing" of which we find occasional mention in early records.

Field—The whole central area within the legend, saving the space reserved for the *exergue;* the portrait or other type on either side occupies the field. Fr. *champ;* Ital. *area.*

Flan—The piece or sheet of metal which received the impression or impressions from the die. It is apparent from extant specimens that a number of impressions were often taken on a large sheet of metal, which was subsequently cut up; and when the die was round, and the corners unclipped, the coin remained square, as we

find on so much of the Continental money, and on some of the Anglo-Saxon and English.

Fleur-de-coin, or *f. d. c.*—In the primitive state, as struck, even if the condition is, from the negligence of the striker, faulty.

Florin, with the half and the fourth—A gold coinage of England under Edward III., 1344, the earliest, with the exception of the gold piece struck by Henry III. in 1257, unless we include the Canterbury *triens* and the ancient British series. The Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman kings struck no gold. The florin was ordered to be of the weight of two Florentines, fifty to be coined to the pound, Tower standard, the fineness twenty-three carats. At this time Walter Dunfleurs was Master of the Mint. According to Camden, the dies for the new pieces were made by Florentine artists. The current value of the florin and its fractions was 6s., 3s., and 1s. 6d. respectively. It did not remain current more than a year.

Florin, with the double—A silver coin of the United Kingdom, first instituted in 1848. The double was not struck till 1887, and has been discontinued. (See *Anglo-Gallic money.*)

Forgeries of ancient and modern coins—See an interesting chapter in Akerman's "Introduction," 1848, pp. 177–210.

Fortuna thaler—A denomination of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, with the legend: *O, Ihr, Luster, Alle, Vier, Was. Ihr, sucht. das findt.*

Founder (*Ktistes*)—The name found on many Greek coins of cities, and intended to denote the real or supposed founder of the place, or to perpetuate the memory of some famous native of it. In the former category we often get Hercules, Bacchus, Alexander; in the latter, Hector, Theseus, Homer, Anacreon, Pythagoras, Lycurgus, Hieron, Hippocrates, Plato, &c.

Franco-Italian money—The large and valuable series in all metals struck by the temporary French rulers of parts of Italy from Charles VI. to Louis XIV. (1396–1704), not reckoning the coinage of Napoléon I. for that region. The pieces belonging to this series are included in Hoffmann with engravings. The initiative was taken by Charles VI. about 1396 (comp. *Genoa*), and Charles VIII. and his successors struck money in all metals at Pisa, Naples, Aquila, Chieti, Sulmona, Milan, Asti, and the other points enumerated by Hazlitt.

Franco-Spanish money—The currency struck in Spain by Louis XIII. and XIV., 1640–59, during their occupation of parts of that country. (See Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 104.)

French colonial money—The earliest colonial issue with which we have met is a silver piece of five sols,

with the laureated bust of Louis XIV. to right, and the legend *Lud. XIIII. D. G. Fr. Et Nav. Rex.*, and on reverse, *Gloriam Regni Tui Dicent*, 1670. This rare piece purports to have been issued "pour la facilité du commerce dans les Isles et Terre ferme de l'Amerique." There are also pieces of fifteen sols struck for Canada. The plated sol of 1742, with *L* in the centre of reverse, is usually considered as struck for Louisiana. The bank tokens for the Mauritius were struck at Calcutta in 1822.

Fulmen—The thunderbolt significant of Zeus, and found on coins as a symbolical adjunct or in the hands of the god.

Galley halfpence—The name bestowed by the Londoners on the foreign money tendered at Galley Quay, Thames Street, by Italian and other traders, and unfavourably viewed by the English. (See Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," pp. 236–237.)

Gardant or *guardant*—See *Passant*.

Gazzetta—One type bears the name of Candia on reverse, and on obverse the radiated sejant lion facing with the sword in his right claw. The copper coins struck for the same Government and island about 1630 for 15, 30, and 60 *tornesi*, represent 1, 2, and 4 *gazzettas* respectively.

Gilt—A term applied to coins of inferior metals washed with gold. Fr. *doré*.

Greek engravers (*Ancient*)—See Head's *Hist. Num.*, p. 100, and (List of Engravers' Names) p. 785.

Groat—A silver English coin = four pennies in the same metal, first struck under Edward III. with the half-groat. But there is a pattern groat which has been conjecturally assigned to Edward I., but which more probably belongs to the close of the following reign. Under Edward IV. we meet with *heavy groats* and *light groats*, of 60 and 48 grains respectively. The old type determined under Henry VIII. Its successor was the fourpence, of more modern fabric, struck by Edward VI. and (with modifications) down to 1856. Of the half-groat of the Commonwealth there are at least two types. The design for the reverse of that of 1836 was taken from the *thirty-lepta* piece engraved by W. Wyon for the Ionian Isles (1819).

Groat, with the half and the third—A silver denomination of Scotland, of which the two former first appeared in 1358 under David II. The third seems to be confined to the third coinage of James V. (1527).

Gros tournois—First instituted in France under Louis IX. about 1248, and imitated in every part of Europe. Louis X. (1314–16) did not strike this coin, those hitherto ascribed to him belonging to Louis IX. Of Charles VI.

(1380-1422) we have a variety with three *fleurs-de-lis* substituted for the *chatel*. One probably struck at Dieren or Diiren by the ruler of Juliers reads *Dhilippus Rex* (for Philip le Bel, 1285–1314). Comp. *Circle*.

Guinea, with the half and double, and multiple of five—Gold currency of England from 1662 to 1813. The first five-guinea piece appeared in 1668. Some of the guineas, half-guineas, &c., of Charles II. and William III. have an elephant under the bust to denote that they were coined from Guinea gold. There is a guinea of William and Mary, 1694, with the shield on reverse, differing from that given in Keary's Henfrey, p. 89. There is the *Elector* guinea of George I., 1714, and rare pattern guineas of that monarch (1727) and of Anne, 1702, the latter with low drapery. A third-guinea, or seven-shilling piece, appeared under George III., 1797–1813, and there are quarter-guineas of 1718 and 1762. A common and favourite variety of the guinea is called the *spade-guinea*, from the shield being in the form of a spade ace; there are several dates, and the half, which is scarcer. The guinea of 1813 is sometimes termed the *military* guinea.

Gymnasiarch—A name occurring on certain coins of Pergamos, Apamœa, &c., and appearing to denote a person appointed to preside over the public games.

Halfpenny—(i.) A silver coin struck under the

Heptarchy (of Edmund of East Anglia none were known till the Cuerdale find in 1840), Edward the Confessor, John (Irish coinage), Henry II., Edward I., &c., down to the time of the Commonwealth, of which last *régime* a small silver barrelful occurred many years since in mint-state at an auction. A halfpenny is mentioned, it appears, in a proclamation of Henry III., 1257, as if it had then been a current piece, but none is known of that reign. Two very rare halfpence of Edward VI., of London and Bristol, occurred at the Shepherd sale in 1885, Nos. 252, 253. There is a pattern halfpenny of Elizabeth (Marsham sale, £4), and one in copper. (ii.) A coin in copper, pewter, or tin, struck once by Elizabeth, and in and after 1665 for England, Scotland, and Ireland separately, and ultimately for the United Kingdom down to the present time.

Henry I. of England—At a sale at Edinburgh, December 1893, a very fine and rare penny of the Ipswich mint, now in the British Museum, occurred; the name of the moneyer was Rodland. A Southwark penny *with a double circle* was sold at Sotheby's, July 10, 1894, No. 32, for £9.

Heraldic terms—A vocabulary both extensive and intricate, especially in the German and Low Country series, from the numerous intermarriages, redistributions of territory, temporary occupations of particular provinces, and other causes. Some of the

leading phrases are explained under their respective heads.

Hibernia—The name said to have been given to the overstruck Limerick halfpenny of James II. of England.

Hieromnemon—Presumably a remembrancer of the ancient Greek religious ceremonies. The name occurs on a coin of the Emperor Verus struck at Byzantium.

High Priest—An officer whose name is found on a coin of Eumenia in Phrygia. Comp. *Priest* and *Priestess*.

Hard dollar or *cob*—The Spanish *duro*.

Hardhead—See *Lion*.

Harrington, or rather *Harington*—The popular name for the farthing tokens in copper when they were struck under James I., from John, Lord Harington of Exton, the patentee. The piece continued to be in circulation for many years after Harington's death in 1613–14.

Hat-piece—A gold piece representing King James VI., wearing a tall hat, struck in 1591–92 (5th coinage). It is rare.

Ilipa Magna—A town of the Turtuli, on the Bœtis, Hispania Bœtica, of which there are bronze coins of the Roman era with a fish to right on obverse, surmounted by a crescent, and below ILIPENSE A in two lines, the

whole within a beaded circle; on reverse an ear of corn without legend. (?) The modern Alcolea or Penaflor.

Iron money of Byzantium and Lacedæmon—No specimens seem to be known. It belonged to the sixth and fifth centuries B.C.

Joe—(i.) Paper money issued for the British Colonies of Demerara and Essequibo about 1809, a *joe* being reckoned as = 22 guilders British. The series ran from 2 to 20 *joes*. (ii.) The English fourpenny-piece of 1836, from Joseph Hume, who promoted its revival.

Klippe—The square or other irregular coins issued as money of necessity or patterns in many of the Continental series in early times. Some are of exceptional curiosity and rarity.

Knurled or *Knarled*—The word which more properly describes the serrated edge of a coin than that (*milled*) generally employed.

Lebongo—Portuguese currency employed at Angola by the natives prior to 1693, and formed of straw, each piece = 5 reis. It was superseded by copper money after the reconcilement of the Africans to the innovation. The latter coinage is very rare, and is of unusually good fabric; there is no legend, but the cross with the four figures of the date 1693 in a piece before us is repeated on either side.

Legend—The description round the circle or circles of a coin of the circumstances under which it was struck, including the name and titles of the ruler, the name of the city or province, the date, and the mint-mark. In reading the legend, the ordinary rule is to begin at the right hand of the cross or other symbol on the obverse of a piece. The double circle was introduced in the *gros tournois* of Louis IX. of France about 1250, perhaps to afford space for particulars and to save abbreviations.

Leopard—An Anglo-Gallic coin. The animal depicted on the obverse appears to be more like a lion, so far as it resembles either. A crowned leopard also occurs on the English gold florin of Edward III., 1343–44, and a leopard's head is one of the mint-marks employed by the engraver or moneyer of his Anglo-Gallic florin.

Lex—The monetary standard fixed by imperial or other constituted authority. The convention-money of the minor German states, and some of that of the United Provinces, is stated to be *Ad Legem Imperii*. The system was adopted for general commercial accommodation.

Lion, and the half—A billon coin struck in many varieties by Edward I. of England at Bordeaux, Guessin, &c.

Lion and half lion—(i.) A gold denomination of Scotland under Robert II., James I., and James II.

The variety known as the *demy* appears to be merely an inaccurate division of the relative weights 40, 30, and 20 grs. under Robert II.—a standard which was altered and adjusted under James I. to 50–53 grs., and the half for the *lion* and *half-lion* respectively. (ii.) A billon coin of Mary I., 1555–58 (3rd coinage), otherwise known as a *hardhead*, a word corrupted from the French *hardit*.

Lion in the hedge—The well-known type of the lion in the hedge, subsequently modified and lost in the substitution of a man for the beast, occurs in the Flemish coinage of the fifteenth century. Its germ is to be sought presumably in the universal practice of venery or hunting. The hart enclosed in a pale, or *lodged*, was the badge of Richard II. of England, and was inherited from his mother, Joan of Kent, consort of the Black Prince, and sole heiress of Edmund Plantagenet. (Comp. Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 304.)

Lis or *fleur-de-lis*—The almost universal adjunct of the older French money. Its origin is a matter of great uncertainty, and it has been even doubted whether the representations on ancient buildings and sculpture refer to a flower at all. It has also been suggested that the name was associated with that of Louis or Clovis, quasi *fleur de Luce* or *Louis*.

Lituus—The crooked staff used by the Roman augurs; also a term used for a kind of trumpet with a

curved extremity. But the former sense is the more usual.

London—A Roman, British, Saxon, and Norman mint. The money of the emperors has *M. L.* or *P. Lon.*

Louis—(i.) The gold coin of 1640 exists in multiples of 4, 8, and 10, as well as in the moiety. The type and denomination continued in use till the Revolution of 1789. The gold coinage of 1790 witnessed the production of a coin of an entirely new pattern, but with the portrait of the king still retained. Of the original louis there are several varieties: *louis à la mèche longue, louis à la meche courte, aux lunettes, au bandeau*, &c. (ii.) The name of the silver coin of Louis XIII., 1641 (*essais* only), 1642, &c. = 60 sols, with its divisions down to 2 sols. Arthur Young, in his "Travels in France," tells us that in 1787 this piece was = about 24 francs; it has always maintained its weight and fineness.

Luceburger—See Hazlitt, p. 212, and Akerman, "Introduction to Ancient and Modern Coins," 1848, pp. 202–203. The *Luxemburgh* of Chaucer.

Mark of Cologne—A standard of silver weight, not a coin. At Venice the *mark* soon gave way to the *lira* as money of account, and amounts in commercial dealings were reckoned by *lire di grossi* or *piccoli* for silver, and *lire di perperi* for gold, the most curious circum-

stance being that the *perpero* itself was a Byzantine coin. This standard was equally borrowed by the French rulers, the Italian commonwealths, and by the Anglo-Saxons, from Germany, and fluctuated in value according to the changes effected at various times in the current money. The old *denier parisis* was struck at 220 to the mark. The normal German silver thaler was = one-tenth of the mark of Cologne. A four-groschen piece of Prussia, 1803, reads on reverse: 84 *Ex Marca Pura Colon.* In the monetary system of Geneva, as established in 1535, the silver florin was = the twenty-seventh part of a mark of Cologne.

Maundy money—The alms, consisting of fourpence, threepence, twopence, and a penny in silver, distributed by the High Almoner on behalf of the sovereign, with other gifts, to a number of poor persons, regulated by the age of the king or queen, on Maundy Thursday. The term is derived from the *maund* or basket in which the charity is delivered. The money was first struck under Charles II. for this purpose, and the practice still continues.

Medallion—A term applied to the larger pieces of money in the Greek and Roman series, as to which, or some of which at least, there has been a question if they were intended for currency or for distribution as medals.

Merovingian money—An expression rather loosely applied to the whole group of coins struck in the

Low Countries and in France during the sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries, and actually originating in Holland. The most important and valuable examples, nevertheless, are those struck on French ground, with the portraits of the Merovingian dynasty.

Merovingian Period (comp. *Gaul*)—The gold and silver coinages current in Gaul or France from the sixth to the eighth centuries were of totally distinct character. The former, so far as it belongs to that country, was of regal origin, and was struck within the precincts of the palace by the moneyer of the sovereign. At Paris, under Dagobert I. and some of his successors, Eligius or Eloy superintended the operations of the mint, and the pieces variously present the names of the ruler, the mint-master, and the place. Some exhibit for the first time the words *Moneta Palati*. We have perhaps still to learn the circumstances under which the silver *saigas* of thick fabric, of which so many occurred in the *trouvaille* of Cimiez, were issued at Arles and other points, with the monograms of individuals (Antenor, Nemphidius, &c.) on the one side, and that of the source of production on the other.

Metrology—The law or system governing the original utterance of the ancient Greek money, and of that struck by Rome in the consular or republican period, and determining the allocation of coins as to date and origin, where other guides may fail.

Metropolis—The chief city among the Greeks, equivalent to the Roman *civitas*; the seat of local government, coinage, &c.

Milled—See *Knurled*.

Minimi—A term which, from want of a better one, has been assigned to a class of bronze money of Roman type, probably of the fourth or fifth century B.C., which may have been of local or provincial origin, and is of unusually small module. It is distinct from the Gaulish or other Western imitations of third brass coins, and must have been introduced as a convenient medium in a region where the purchasing power of currency was high.

Mining-pieces—Money struck from the gold, silver, or copper ore worked in France, Germany, Russia, and Sweden. There are also coins specially issued for the pay of the miners.

Mint-mark—The symbol denoting the place of origin of a coin, sometimes accompanied by the initials or name of the engraver. The mint-mark is variously found in the field, in the exergue, in the outer circle over the portrait or other obverse type. It often occurs below the truncation of the bust.

Mint-master—The official who superintended the operations of a mint, and in some cases placed his initials or monogram on pieces.

Moneta—A word sometimes said to be derived from the temple of Juno Moneta, where the earliest Roman coins are thought to have been struck under the supervision of the priests.

Moneta palatina, *palati*, or *palaci*—An expression found on some of the Merovingian coins in the seventh century, struck under the authority and supervision of Eligius or Eloy, moneyer to Dagobert I. and II. The same term occurs on the deniers of Charles le Chauve.

Monetarius—Moneyer, *q.v.* This became at an early period a family name at Venice, whence we may infer the antiquity, perhaps, of the Mint there, unless the Monetarii were later settlers in the city.

Money of account—A method of computation based on an imaginary unit or on weight. We find it among the Sicilian Greeks on certain bronze coins in the third century B.C. (see Head, p. 101), in the ancient Roman numismatic system (comp. *Sestertium*), and in the Middle Ages at Venice, Cologne, Paris, &c. At Venice it was the *mark*, and subsequently the *lira*, and in France the *livre*, which never had existence in the normal coinage till the first Revolution, but is frequently cited in large commercial transactions. In Portugal in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find the *libra* = 20 *soldi*, mentioned as money of account. It is not improbable that the Greek money of account took its rise from the original *æs grave*.

of Italy. Comp. *Ingot*, *Mark*, and *Ring-money*. Even in Anglo-Saxon England in the eighth century the higher values were estimated by standards of weight, not of currency, as in France heavy payments were reckoned in *livres* = the Roman *libra* and the Venetian *lira*. But, on the other hand, on the Continent it was a usage to strike a special issue of gold money where it was required for a given occasion, and Offa, king of Mercia, presumably adopted this plan when he engaged to pay the Holy See an annuity of 396 gold *marcuses*, a denomination not otherwise known in that country. In England, in Anglo-Norman times, the *shilling* was money of account, varying from four to twelve silver pence; there was no current piece so called. Of the pound, *libra*, *lira*, or *livre*, the value depended on the description of money and metal specified.

Money of necessity—A species of currency probably known from the earliest times, but principally employed subsequently to the more intricate relationships of political bodies and states to each other. It is strictly limited to coins struck in an abnormal manner and metal on emergencies. The annals of Europe abound with examples. (See Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 233 *et alt.*) In the second century B.C. we find the Boeotians, while Greece was under a financial crisis, passing bronze at silver standards or values.

Moneyer—The person who struck the coin, as distinguished from the engraver or artist. On the Mero-

vingian *trientes* his name occurs with or without that of the ruler and the state. The same individual carried out his operations at several places, alike in the case of that series and in the case of some of the later German and Low Country money. On Anglo-Saxon pennies the moneyer inscribed his name in a similar manner, often omitting that of his employer. He thereby vouched for the authenticity of his work. We have before us, to an almost surprising extent, the names of the men who struck the Merovingian series in the Netherlands, Germany, and France, the Anglo-Saxon one in England, and the mediæval productions in several of the Italian republics. The more complete identification of initials and monograms may hereafter greatly add to our knowledge in this respect, and in that of the engravers.

Münz-recht—The right to strike money vested in the Roman and German emperors, as it had been in the Roman Senate prior to Augustus, who assumed the authority to coin the more precious metals, leaving the legislative assembly control over the bronze. The *münz-recht* was conferred by degrees on most of the European rulers and cities, with or without reservation.

Mute—Destitute of a legend or other means of identification beyond those furnished by heraldic or symbolical devices.

Navarre—A *blanc* of Charles II., 1349–87, reads

Karlvs D: Proprietarivs Navre, with *K* crowned between two roses; on reverse a croix pattée cantonned with his arms and those of Navarre.

Neocoros, or Sweeper of the Temple—A dignity assumed by Ephesus and other Greek cities, laying claim to the protection of the deity of the locality or region. The Ephesians were styled the *Neocori* of the great Diana. The Scribe, or Town Clerk, alludes to this point in his appeal to the people about the preaching of St. Paul at Ephesus.

Nature-worship—A low form of cult, which was very prevalent in different parts of Europe, particularly in Germany and Switzerland, and which reflects itself in some of the money, as even in the *bear* of Berne. But its survival is manifold, and may be traced in the presence on German and Italian money of the urochs, the wolf, the stag, &c. Not only the most ancient bracteates of Berne already offer the bear as the urban symbol, but it appears to have been one known to the Helvetii in Roman times. (See Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 322.)

Navarchidus—An inscription found on the coins of seaport towns in Greece, as Agæ in Cilicia, Carystus, Corycus, Dora, Nicopolis, Sebaste, Sidon, Tomi, Tripoli, &c.

Noble—(i.) A gold coin of English origin, first struck

about 1344, with the quarter (to which the half was added in 1346), by Edward III. at the mint in the Tower, and continued, with many variations, down to Henry VIII., who struck the *George noble* and *half-noble*. The *rose-noble* of Edward IV. is probably the one intended by the *placaet* of Antoine, Duke of Lorraine (1511), where it is allowed to pass for six francs in his territories. The coin was imitated by David II. of Scotland (1329–71), and in the Low Countries at various places, as mentioned by Hazlitt. (ii.) A gold coin of Scotland under James VI., of two types, 1580 and 1588, the latter known as the *Thistle noble*, and engraved by Thomas Foulis. (iii.) A silver coin of Scotland, first struck in 1568, and = a half-merk, or 6s. 8d. Scots, with the moiety. These coins occur of 1568–72–73–74–75–77–80.

Of the *noble* of Edward III. it is questionable whether certain numbers were not struck at Yprés, by arrangement between Edward and the towns of Yprés, Bruges, and Ghent in 1345. (See Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 178.) This circumstance does not seem to have been noticed by the English numismatists, who mention, however, nobles with *C* for Calais. On the other hand, the friendly relations between Edward and Jacob van Artevelde of Ghent may lead to an inference that these coins were struck there, and thus may be the pieces permitted by Parliament to pass equally in England and Flanders for six shillings. This sanction, so far as England is concerned, implies a foreign origin. (See Blanchet, "Manuel," 1890, i. 442.)

Of the imitations in the Netherlands the divisions are scarcer than the whole. But there is a rare one struck in 1582 for Gueldres, after the first Spanish abandonment of the country, with the legend *Devs . Transfert . Et . Constitvit . Regna.*

In the Report of the Parish of St. James's, Westminster, for 1882, p. 72, is a reference to the *noble* as a current piece as late as 1687. This, of course, may have been the *Thistle noble* of James I.

Occasion may be taken to observe that the original English *noble* was the piece which appears to have assisted in laying the foundation of the more modern style of gold currency in Europe, and in supplanting the classical and Merovingian models; but the honour of priority is due to France. (Comp. *Campen.*)

Nomes—The territorial divisions of ancient Egypt, of which we meet with the names on a series of bronze coins, accompanied by representations of the deities worshipped in the respective localities. (See Head, *Historia Numorum*, p. 722.)

Nomine Domini — Comp. *Dei Gratiâ* — A silver groat of Jan, Seigneur of Cuinre (1297–1360), reads, *Moneta Cunre In Nomine Domini.* The *Domini Nomine* was borrowed by the Ostrogoths from the later imperial Roman currency, as we see it on the third brass of Martinianus. Some of the *Nummus* series are engraved by Mr. Hodgkin in his volume on Theodoric the Goth, 1891.

Nummularius — A money-changer among the Romans.

Nummus—According to Dr. Head, a circulating medium under constituted authority; but the word may at the same time bear a relationship to the Greek verb signifying *to distribute*, as indeed the Greek substantive signifying *law* comes from the same root—laws, like money, being intended for current use. *Nummus* was introduced into the Ostrogothic coinage as a specific denomination for bronze pieces.

Obolos—The copper unit in the ancient Greek currency. There were the *Diobolos*, *Triobolos*, *Tetrobolos*, *Hemiobolos*, and *Tetraobolos*.

Obverse and *Avers* or *Reverse*—The side of a coin on which the portrait or other feature is stamped, and that on which the subsidiary particulars are given, as the date, value, local symbol, &c.

Panegyriarch—Apparently the orator who delivered the *elogia* upon the successful performers in the public games.

Parisis—One of the two chief French numismatic standards, one quarter higher than that of Tours. (See Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 221.) But there were others less widely recognised, as those of Poitou, Anjou, Provins, &c.

Passant—The expression applied to a figure on a coin in a walking position from right to left or left to right. Where the figure (lion, leopard, &c.) carries a paw raised, as on the arms of England, it is said to be *passant-gardant*.

Patera—A round dish or plate, employed both in domestic establishments and in religious ceremonies. It was originally of earthenware, but subsequently of bronze, silver, and even gold; and examples are preserved of ancient specimens of elaborate workmanship and richly engraved or embossed with artistic designs.

Patina—The natural surface created in course of time by the deposit of bronze money, more especially Roman and Roman colonial, very rarely the primitive coinage of the uncial reduction, in certain descriptions of soil, and which must be accompanied by a complete freedom from corrosion and friction. The dark and light-green *patinæ* are both highly esteemed. The difference in value between a patinated and unpatinated coin is immense.

Penny—(i.) A silver coin of England, Scotland, and Ireland under the Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman kings. (ii.) A copper coin of England, Isle of Man, &c., first struck under George I. in the shape of a piece intended for the American Plantations (*Rosa Americana*), 1722–24. The earliest English penny was that for the Isle of Man, 1786. (iii.) A billon and copper

denomination of Scotland under James VI., Charles I., &c., and existing in the unit, the half, and the multiples up to forty. (Comp. *Turner.*) The so-called gold penny of Henry III. (of 1257), of which only four specimens are known, is of 24-carat gold.

Pièce de plaisir—A coin struck for a special purpose or in a superior metal or denomination in very limited numbers. Examples are not unfrequent in the European series, and the practice seems to have been recognised by the Greeks, whose silver decadrachms and dodecadrachms were probably not intended for common currency. There is especially the twenty-stater piece in gold of Eukratides, king of Bactria, belonging to this category.

Piefort or *Piedfort*—Pieces of money struck on an unusually thick flan of metal as proofs or patterns; the practice was not unknown to the Romans, and in the mediæval series specimens occur in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. There are also *deniers* and *doubles tournois* of Henry III. and IV. and of Louis XIII. of France, struck in this manner, and of the bronze money projected for the second French Republic, 1848, &c. Under the system pursued by the foreign numismatists, the *dick* or thick money, as distinguished from the broad, is often described as *piefort*. (See Hazlitt, "Cat. of Denom.," *in v.*)

Pierced—Perforated for the purpose of suspension; Fr. *troué*. The English touch-money of Charles II.,

James II., the Pretender, and others, is usually pierced. When the hole is closed by solder, the coin is said to be *plugged*. *Touch-pieces* are almost invariably pierced for suspension.

Plack and half-plack — A billon denomination struck under James III. of Scotland (1460–88) and his successors. It seems to have merged in the *bawbee*.

Plated, Fr. *argenté* — Washed with a solution of silver, or silver and zinc, like many of the Roman *denarii* and the more modern European coins of lower values.

Platinum—A hard and scarce metal employed by the Russian Government between 1828 and 1855 for coins of three, six, and twelve roubles. The twelve-rouble piece of 1831 is very rare.

Popular names of Greek coins — It seems that the Greeks, like the moderns in their crowns and sovereigns, &c., were accustomed to christen their pieces of money in common parlance by the familiar type, as the *virgin* and the *owl* at Athens, the *tortoise* at Ægina, the *colt* (young horse) at Corinth, and perhaps the *hare* at Rhegium. In the same way a *stater* of Philip or Alexander of Macedon may have been known as a *philippos* or an *alexander*.

Potin—Base metal.

Pound or *livre Scots* = the franc—(i.) A gold denomination of Scotland under James VI. (1st coinage,

1575–76) in the multiple of twenty = £3 English. (ii.) A silver Scotish piece under Charles I., 1625, in the multiple of three.

Prætor and *Proprætor*—Names of officers found on Greek coins, sometimes the same person serving five times.

Pretence, escutcheon of—The superimposition on a shield of the personal arms of a ruler, as in the arms of Oliver Cromwell on his coinage as Protector (1656–58). The substitution of the *eagle* for the *fleur-de-lis* by Napoleon I. amounted to another form of the same thing.

Priest—One of the persons who placed their names on the Greek money, possibly in connection with the archaic relationship of the coinage to the temples and the gods.

Priestess—A title found on a coin of Attuda in Phrygia as that of a functionary responsible for the character and authority of the money.

Proprietarius—See *Navarre*.

Protos—A pretension put forward by many ancient cities on their coins, generally without reason or authority. The term occurs on money of Ephesus, Smyrna, Nicæa, Nicomedia, Samos, and even Perinthus.

Prytanis—The name of an officer who signed the money in some of the Greek cities (Apamæa, Cyrene, Pergamos, Smyrna, &c.), and sometimes without the person himself being specified.

Quadriga—A Greek or Roman four-horse chariot.

Quæstor—An officer who signed the money occasionally in Macedonia Romana and in Mysia.

Quarterings—The heraldic cognisances introduced into the divisions of a shield of arms on coins, and varying from four to fifteen or upward, the larger number arising of course from intermarriages and other modes of succession.

Rampant—In heraldry the word used to denote a lion, leopard, &c., reared on its hind-legs. The arms of Gueldres are two lions rampant *vis-à-vis*.

Restrike, Fr. *refrappe*—A modern, or at least more recent, impression from the original die.

Rider, with the two-thirds, one-third, and half—A gold denomination of Scotland, borrowed from the Continental money of the same class or type. The rider first appeared in 1475 under James III. (2nd coinage); the divisions were added in the first coinage of James IV., 1488. The piece was continued, with modifications, down to the reign of James VI.

Ring-money—According to Cæsar, the Britons, besides their brass and gold money, were accustomed at the time the Romans first visited the island to make use of iron rings (*annuli ferrei*) adjusted to specific weights. The author of the "Commentaries" does not mention rings in the more precious metals; but in finds of coins, objects in gold, usually taken to have been personal ornaments, as bracelets or armlets, may have been employed for a similar purpose. The scarcity of iron among the Britons necessarily rendered objects of exchange in that metal more valuable securities than they would at present be; the application to the same purpose of personal ornaments of gold in the form of armlets and bracelets is deduced from analogy with the existing practice in some parts of the African continent; these objects were, in fact, interchangeable, and were, no doubt, as Cæsar acquaints us in respect to the iron rings, adjusted to certain weights. (Comp. Akerman's *Num. Man.*, p. 229.)

Rouble—Catherine I. struck in 1725 the square copper rouble, and in 1726 it was reissued with the half and quarter rouble. The rouble of 1725 and quarter-rouble of 1726 of this type brought £105 at the Meyer sale in 1894. Catherine II. issued the *imperial* and *double imperial* in gold = five and ten roubles. The Emperor Paul had the five-roubles in the same metal, engraved by Joseph Mager, and pieces of three, and five and ten, roubles have been struck by the later rulers for Poland and Russia respectively. There

is a rare rouble of the Czarina Elizabeth (1759) struck to commemorate the battle fought near Kunnersdorf.

Runic letters—These are not only used by the engravers of the Anglo-Saxon *sceattæ*, but at a later period by those of some of the Anglo-Saxon pennies of Mercia (seventh and eighth centuries) and East Anglia. (See Hawkins, 1887, pp. 37, 55.)

Ryal or *rial*—A gold piece, first struck in England under Edward IV., otherwise known as the *rose-noble*. But the later pieces so called, as the *rose-rial*, the *spur-rial*, varied, the latter being = 15s., whereas the former was = 30s.; and, in fact, the *rose-rial* and *spur-rial* of James's second issue corresponded with the thirty-shilling and fifteen-shilling pieces of his fifth. In some specimens of the first the background is plain on obverse. The type of the lion on the second is borrowed from a *kipperthaler* of Bavaria, 1621. In 1 Elizabeth the ryal or rial is explicitly recognised as the moiety of the pound sovereign or thirty-shilling piece. Henry VII. struck a piece of four rials or a double sovereign. His rial or noble is very rare.

Ryal—(i.) A gold coin of Scotland, suggested by the French *royal-d'or*, and existing in a pattern struck under James V. (1514–42) in 1525 (2nd coinage). (ii.) With the two-thirds and one-third ryal, a silver coin of Scotland, the largest ever struck for that country, except the sword-dollar and the sixty-shilling pieces

of James II. and William III. It exhibits on obverse the crowned arms of Scotland, and on reverse a palm-tree and *Dat Gloria Vires*. Usually known as the *Cruickston dollar*, from the erroneous association of the palm with a yew on the estate of Darnley in Renfrewshire, beneath which the Queen and himself used to sit. There are the dates 1565–66–67.

S.R.I.A.—Sancti Romani Imperii Archidapifer.

S.R.I.P.—Sancti Romani Imperii Princeps.

St. Andrew, and the half—A gold coin of Scotland, first struck under Robert II., 1371–90, and representing, with the *lion* of the same reign, the earliest *regular* gold currency of that kingdom. There is the Long-cross and the Short-cross type, of which the latter is the rarer. Under James V. the two-third and one-half were coined in 1488. A pattern gold *St. Andrew* exists of the reign of James V.

Saints' names on Anglo-Saxon coins—In the Anglo-Saxon series (A.D. 905–40–42) occur pennies in silver with the names of St. Peter and St. Martin; of the former there is a division, either a halfpenny or a third of a penny. The St. Martin money was struck at Lincoln. (See Hawkins, 1887, pp. 99–102.)

Sanctus Vultus—The supposed head of Christ on the mediæval and later money of Lucca in Italy. It

is apparently nothing more than the principle observed on the ancient Greek coinage of presenting deified resemblances of the temporal rulers.

Sceatta—A silver coin of England, often amorphous, under the earlier Anglo-Saxon rulers, and a word of analogous origin to *rouble*, &c., from the Anglo-Saxon verb *sceattan*, to cut. The earliest *sceattæ* occur with Runic legends, and probably date from the sixth century. Some of the improved types possess good portraits, and are of careful execution. But the original engravers of these pieces, who perhaps went to Roman models, appear to have been illiterate Scandinavian copyists, who understood no alphabet but their own. In certain cases the legends on the *sceattæ* may be Roman inscriptions retrograde, or, when Runic letters were not used, an abortive effort to transfer the Latin terms of the prototype to the die. Whatever may be said of the illegibility of the British coinage, the *sceatta* series is, to a large extent, not less obscure and enigmatical.

Scheidemünz—Money in the German series intended for general currency throughout a dominion or federal union.

Scotish Mints—The principal were: Roxburgh, Berwick, Perth, Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Lanark, Stirling, and Glasgow. Minor or occasional places of coinage were: Dunbar, Dundee, Forres, Inchaffrey, Inverness, Annan, Dumbarton, Linlithgow.

Scribe or *Town Clerk*, Gr. *Grammateus* — An officer whose name occasionally presents itself on the Greek money. (See Akerman's *Num. Man.*, 1840, p. 23.) Comp. *Neocoros*.

Scripulum—A silver weight of 18 grains in ancient Roman computation, and originally a measure in counting seeds. It afterward acquired an artificial meaning in the Roman monetary system, and the term was applied to the earliest gold piece = 20 sestertii, struck somewhere out of the city about B.C. 206.

Sede vacante—A phrase which occurs on the money issued under the authority of the Senior Cardinal in the Papal series, and under that of the Chapter in the case of a bishop or archbishop during an *interregnum* throughout Germany and the Netherlands.

Sejant—The type where a lion or other object is represented on a coin in a sitting attitude.

Servus Christi—The legend found on some of the latest money of the infamous Emperor Justinian II., 711 A.D.

Sestertium—1000 *sestertii*; *decies sestertia*, a million *sestertii*.

Sestertius—A Roman brass coin of the republican epoch = 2½ *asses*, or the fourth part of a *denarius*.

Shekel, with the half and the quarter—A silver coin of Judæa = four Tyrian *drachmai*, with the legends in Samaritan characters, first struck, so far as is known, about B.C. 143–137. These coins are of thick fabric, and have become, through finds, comparatively plentiful. There is also a *half-shekel* struck over a Roman *denarius* of ordinary module. Both the Jewish *shekel* and the *half-shekel* are interesting in connection with the Scriptural incidents of the Betrayal and the tribute-money.

Shilling—(i.) A well-known English denomination, commencing with Henry VII. in 1504, and existing down to the present time in a periodically modified form. The first of the modern type is that of Cromwell, 1658. The first shilling (and sixpence) on which the appellation occurs are those of 1831. (ii.) A silver coin of Scotland = a penny English, first struck under James VI., first coinage (1567), in the multiples of 30 (sword-dollar), and later on, fourth coinage (1581), of 16, 8, 4 and 2; fifth coinage, 40, 30, 20, 10; seventh coinage, 50. After the Union, we find the 60, 30, 12, 6, 3, 2, 1, and half-shilling (1605). The higher values, especially the sixty-shilling of James II. and William III., are rare. The sixty-shilling piece was = five shillings English currency.

Siege-money—The pieces struck either by the inhabitants of the place besieged or by the besiegers, or both. It constitutes an enormous series, of which even

the elaborate work of M. le Colonel Maillet furnishes an imperfect view. A half gold *real* of Philip II. of Spain is countermarked with a lion, having been employed as money of necessity in 1573; and on the other hand Dutch pieces, either of ordinary or special series, occur stamped with an eagle for imperial use.

Siglos—The twentieth of the gold Persian *daric*, and the hundredth part in weight of the silver *mina* of the same country and period.

Sicily—Attention is due to its having copper money of Roger I. (1072–1103) with *Rogervs Comes* and *Maria . Mater . Dni.* of various types. It was a kind of inheritance from the Greeks.

Sophist—A name found on money of Smyrna. Akerman (*Num. Man.*, 1840, p. 25) states that it also occurs on a coin of Cidyessus in Phrygia; but the reading on the latter seems to be *Logictou*.

Sovereign—A gold coin first struck 5th Henry VII., and = two rials or nobles, or thirty shillings. It is usually known as the *pound* sovereign. The reverse is similar as regards the legend to the *noble* of Edward III. The obverse represents the sovereign seated on his throne, and hence perhaps the alternative name. The double rose typifies the union of the two Houses of York and Lancaster in Henry's person. Henry also struck the double sovereign, or four-rial piece,

and Edward VI. the triple one. Henry VIII. had the sovereign = twenty shillings (1542–43, thirty-fourth and thirty-fifth years), of a different type, and existing in several varieties; it has an older portrait, bearded. The earliest half-sovereigns of Edward VI. have the name of his father and his own bust. (Comp. *Campen.*) The three-pound piece or triple unit of Charles I., struck at Oxford (Juxon's), 1643–44, in several varieties, may be regarded as a triple sovereign. A pattern is in the Hunterian Museum at Glasgow. The half-sovereign of 1821 was withdrawn because it so closely resembled the sixpence, and the sixpence of 1887 was withdrawn because it so closely resembled the half-sovereign. Yet in both cases the appearance and weight are sufficiently different. Of the sovereign of Queen Victoria, 1837, in which the bust is smaller, there are four varieties; that of 1838 occurs without the roses, and with a knurled edge. There is no half-sovereign of Victoria prior to 1839.

Species—A kind of currency, as distinguished from *banco* and *courant*, established for commercial use in Germany, Denmark, &c. The principle was well known to the ancients, the Greeks having probably borrowed it from the Lydians.

Spilegroschen—Small silver coins, which seem to have been used in Saxony as far back as the sixteenth century by card-players. (Compare Hazlitt, "Coins of Europe," p. 235.)

Standard—(i.) In ancient Greek numismatic nomenclature, the weight to which at different times or in various localities the current money was adjusted; it was a principle borrowed from Africa and Asia, which had their Phœnician, Persic, and Perso-Babylonic standards. The oldest European one was the *Æginetic*, which was succeeded by the Euböic or Attic, chiefly relevant to silver only, as Chalcis and the other cities of Eubœa struck no gold; the Rhodian, &c., culminating in the Indian, which was followed in the later Bactrian and Parthian money. (ii.) A modern European principle, to which the money of the principal states of that continent respectively conformed, namely, Cologne, Tours, Paris, and London, to which may be added, although they are not specifically enumerated, Venice and Florence, if not Hungary, for gold weights. But there were also certain subsidiary mediæval systems, such as those of Anjou, Poitou, &c., which enjoyed a similar reputation and credit.

Stater, *Statera* (standard)—(i.) A gold coin introduced into Macedon in the fourth century B.C., and subsequently diffused over the greater part of Greece, besides serving as the model for unskilful imitators in Western Europe. There were the double stater, the half, and the quarter, the Macedonian coin being = twenty drachmæ, or about twenty-three shillings English money. (ii.) The silver tetradrachm, of same standard, is sometimes described as a stater.

Stephanophoros—A type of high-priest among the ancient Greeks, who wore a crown, sometimes of gold, in the public processions, and had his name inscribed on certain coins of Lydia, &c. The office was capable of being held with that of archon.

Styca (from the Teutonic *stük*, piece)—A Northumbrian coinage extending from the seventh to the ninth century, and of a uniform fabric but of uncertain standard, the usual proportion being about 70 per cent. of copper, 20 of zinc, 10 of silver, and some fractional ingredients of gold, lead, and tin. The *stycas* of many reigns are tolerably common owing to modern finds, but others are extremely rare—that is to say, the survival in actual currency was very small, and the abundance in certain cases is due to *treasure trove*. The *stycas* of Ecgfrith (670–685) were, for example, unknown prior to the Heworth find, 1813, and those of Heerdulf (794–806) till the Hexham one, 1833. A supposed unique one of Osred II., 789–90, occurs in the Montagu Catalogue, Part I., No. 384.

Sülz, Würtemberg—One of the mints of the Dukes of Würtemberg.

Surcharged—An additional quarter laid on an escutcheon, generally in the centre, to denote the connection of a coinage with a special district or dynasty.

Suskin and Dodkin—The Galley halfpence offered in payment at the Galley Quay, as mentioned under

Galley halfpence, suprâ. The foreign merchants had their residence or settlement in Mincheon or Mincing Lane. But the Galley-men were billeted in a quadrant called Galley Row, between Hart Lane and Church Lane. *Suskin* may be a corruption of *zeskin*. (Comp. *Dod* and *Dodkin, suprâ.*)

Sword-and-sceptre piece, with the half—A gold coin of James VI. of Scotland, so called from those two emblems on the obverse, 1601–4. The issues of 1603–4 are rare, especially the latter.

Symbol—A mark or object significant of an attribute or of the possessor of one, as the fulmen of Zeus, the club of Herakles, the trident of Poseidon, &c. Some of these are of evident import, while others are more or less recondite and subject to hypothetical solutions. It seems probable that the commonly accepted and favourite theory imputing the portraiture on Greek money will undergo modification, as many of the heads are clearly realistic. We also meet with instances where a mark, such as a wheel or some other object, occurs to denote value, like the rose on the Elizabethan sixpence; the ear of corn, the bunch of grapes, the *cornucopia*, the *Pegasos*, the free horse, the horse with a loose rein, the man-headed bull, the crab, the eagle, the torch, the double flute.

T. b. c., très-bien conservé—An expression very often found in foreign numismatic catalogues.

Theologvs—The interpreter of the sacred rites held by the Greeks in honour of the gods.

Tooled—A condition incidental to many coins, chiefly silver and copper, the surface of which has been retouched with a graver or other sharp-pointed implement in order to produce the appearance of brilliant freshness. A large number of valuable pieces have been spoiled in this manner. Fr. *Ciselè*.

Touch-piece—A coin in gold or silver of the St. Michael and Dragon type, more frequently the former, worn by persons who had been touched by the sovereign for the king's evil or scrofula. Dr. Johnson used to wear, or at least possess, a gold touch-piece which had been presented to him as a boy by Queen Anne.

Tournois—The standard of Tours, one of the two by which the mediæval money of France was chiefly regulated. We have the *gros*, *denier*, and *maille tournois* in the earlier currency, and the *liard*, *double*, and *denier tournois* in copper in that of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. We are afraid that the theory of the Oriental parentage of the *gros tournois* of Louis IX., first struck very late in his prolonged reign, must be considered more than dubious, as a comparative examination of the French coinage of the eleventh and twelfth centuries shews in a rudimentary and variant

form the so-called *chatel* on the *gros*, while the double circle already occurs on Italian coins of the tenth century.

Tressure—The ornamental enclosure containing the type, found on many coins, especially gold, in the French, Anglo-Gallic, and English series. The tressure varies in the number of *arcs* or *lobes*, according to circumstances.

Tridrachm—(i.) An ancient Greek denomination: comp. *Drachma*. (ii.) A three-drachma piece in the Roman consular series, otherwise known as a *quadrigatus*.

Trouvaille—A find of coins, either in the open ground or in vessels, or in secret or disused portions of ancient buildings. Excavations for public works or archæological research have proved the two most fruitful sources of addition to our knowledge of the currencies of all ages. The most important finds in England have been those in Jersey, 1820, of Gaulish money mixed up with some British and with Roman *denarii*, &c.; at Hexham in 1833 of Northumbrian stycas, &c.; at Beaworth, in Hampshire, in 1837, of pennies of William I.; and at Cuerdale in 1840 of a most remarkable and extensive variety of Anglo-Saxon and Carolingian coins, ingots, &c. But numberless other minor discoveries of small parcels or isolated pieces have tended in that country as well as abroad,

where the process still continues, to revolutionise the state of knowledge and necessitate the rewriting of our early numismatic annals.

Turner and half-turner—A copper coin of Scotland under James I. of Great Britain (1614), equal to two-pence and a penny Scots respectively. (See "Diary of Mr. John Lamont of Newton," 1830, p. 165.) It was continued under Charles I. and II.

Turney—A species of "black money" current in Ireland in 1339, and imitated from the *tournois* coinage of France. Some other description of black money was in circulation at Dover in 1341. This was simply the *zwaarte* of the Low Countries plated to pass as silver.

Type—The pattern engraved on a die or a pair of dies, and impressed on either side of a coin. It is an inclusive term, and comprehends all the *minutiæ* which are apt to distinguish one issue from another, although a general resemblance between two or more pieces presenting subordinate variations may be sufficient to constitute and establish identity of type. Again, from the imperfect processes of striking, no two ancient coins precisely correspond.

Unicorn, with the half-unicorn—A gold denomination of Scotland, which first appeared in the third coinage of James III. (1486). It was continued under James IV., and perhaps James V. The last does not

seem to have struck the half. The pieces marked with a cinquefoil are attributed to his reign.

Uniface—A coin struck on one side only, and in the modern European series ordinarily money of necessity. But it is also a characteristic of some of the money of the ancient Greeks, alike on the archaic staters of Lampsacus, &c., on those of the thin incuse fabric of Metapontum, &c., and on the Græco-Italian currency of Etruria.

Unit—A gold coin of James VI. of Scotland and I. of Great Britain (1605–10), and of Charles I. (1625–37). The latter (1625) was engraved by Briot. The last coinage (1637) added the half, quarter, and the eighth unit, of which the lowest division is extremely rare.

Vermeille—Silver-gilt.

Victoriatus—The two-thirds of the silver *denarius*, a type introduced into Rome in or about B.C. 228, and virtually abolished about B.C. 100, and representing on the obverse a head of Jupiter, and on the other Victory crowning a trophy. There are the *victoriatus*, *half-victoriatus*, marked in some examples *S.* for *semis*, and the *double victoriatus*. The last is very rare. The *victoriatus* also occurs in the Romano-Iberian coinage, third century B.C. (See Stevenson, p. 875.)

Vierlander—A Low-Country coin current under treaty in four districts, cities, or towns.

Vis-à-vis type—seen on the money of Philip and Mary of England—may be considered as having, with the early money of Spain, a common Gothic origin; but the idea and germ are, of course, Greek. It also occurs on some of the early German money, on that of the Low Countries under Spanish sway, and on a *francescone* of the modern kingdom of Etruria, 1807.

Weight—A principle in monetary computation which enjoyed a universal acceptance and recognition prior to the establishment of standards, of which the ancient Greeks had several, chiefly borrowed from the East. In the mediæval period all large business transactions were conducted on this basis, and down to the eighteenth century Sweden had a currency in copper which practically amounted to a system of exchanging weight for weight.

Weights—Metallic standards which appear to have been produced and preserved from time to time for the purpose of testing and verifying the current money. Numerous specimens exist in all metals, including some in the Anglo-Gallic series. (See Head, *Hist. Num.*, xxiv., and Hazlitt, "Coinage of Europe," p. 241.) Some of the nomenclature of ancient coins, and many of the terms applied to the more modern, refer to the original import of weight, as *drachma*, *libra*, *lira*, *peseta*, *oncia*, &c. (Comp. *Mark*, *Money of account*.)

Wildemannsgulden or *thaler*—The gulden or thaler with the wild man type, originating perhaps in Saxony

or Brunswick, and imitated in other parts of Germany and in Gelderland. The varieties are the *two wild men* and the *wild man and woman*. This idea is traceable back to a very ancient period, and has acquired heraldic importance. There is a thaler of 1557 of Brunswick-Lüneburg with the shield held by the wild man, and enclosed by the collar of the Golden Fleece.

Wire-money—The Maundy money of 1792, so termed from the form of the numerals of value.

X

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DESCRIPTION OF PLATES

PLATE I.

1. *Persia.*—Gold daric, 4th c. B.C.
2. Hellespont (Lampsacus). Gold oblong stater, usual type, 6th or 5th c. B.C.
3. Silver coin of Bœotia, 6th or 5th c. B.C.
4. Silver coin of Ægina, 5th c. B.C.
5. Billon coin of Mitylene in Lesbos, 4th c. B.C.
6. Silver tetradrachm of Athens, archaic style, 5th c. B.C.
7. Hemiekton of same, 4th c. B.C. Gold.
8. Ekta or hecta of Cyzicus in Mysia, 4th c. B.C. Electrum.
9. One-third silver incuse stater of Metapontum in Lucania, 5th or 4th c. B.C.
10. Gold stater of Philip of Macedon, 4th c. B.C.
11. Silver didrachm of Syracuse, 4th c. B.C.
12. Silver tetradrachm of Philistis, wife of Hieron, King of Syracuse, 3rd c. B.C.
13. Hemidrachma of Argolis, 5th c. B.C. Silver.
14. Silver drachma of Larissa, in Thessaly, 4th c. B.C.
15. Silver drachma of Ephesus, in Ionia, 3rd c. B.C.
16. Silver tetradrachm of Alexander Ægus, son of Alexander the Great by Roxana.
17. Bronze coin of Arcadia, 4th c. B.C.

PLATE II.

18. Silver tetradrachm of Macedon, under Roman rule, with a supposed head of Alexander the Great on obverse.
19. Silver stater of Locri Opuntii, 4th c. B.C.
20. Gold octadrachm of Egypt, with veiled head of Arsinoe. *Theta* issue.
21. Bronze coin with veiled bust of the celebrated Cleopatra.
22. Bronze coin of Cnossus in Crete, shewing the *Minotaur* and the *Labyrinth*, 3rd c. B.C.

23. Silver tetradrachm of Antiochus IV. Epiphanes, King of Syria (B.C. 175–164).
24. Silver tetradrachm of Arsaces XIII., King of Parthia.
25. Silver drachma of Arsaces VI., King of Parthia.
26. Silver drachma of Menander, King of Bactria.
27. Gold stater of Carthage, 3rd or 4th c. B.C.
28. Jewish half-shekel (Samaritan inscriptions).

PLATE III.

29. Romano-Campanian gold coin = 20 *sestertii*, struck about B.C. 206.
30. Consular *denarius*, with portrait of Pompey the Great.
31. Consular *denarius* of the Junia Gens.
32. Consular *denarius*, with portraits of C. Servilius Ahala and L. Brutus. Struck by Marcus Brutus, one of the assassins of Cæsar.
33. *Aureus* of the Vibia Gens.
34. *Quinarius* of the Antonia Gens, with veiled head of Marcus Antonius.
35. Consular *denarius* with head of Julius Cæsar.
36. Roman brass or copper *sextans* or piece of two *unciæ*, later period. Perhaps struck in Southern Italy.
37. Brass or copper coin struck abroad by Augustus on the death of his uncle, with portraits of both.
38. Roman Consular *denarius*, with head of Augustus (Mescinia Gens).
39. Silver tridrachm (= three Roman denarii), struck at Antioch, with head of Augustus. Earlier period.
40. Aureus of the Emperor Claudius.
41. First brass coin of the same.

PLATE IV.

42. Second brass coin of the Emperor Hadrian.
43. Second brass coin of the Emperor Titus.
44. Second brass coin of the Emperor Antoninus Pius. *Britannia type.*

45. First brass coin of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius. *Consecratio type.*
46. First brass coin of the Empress Crispina, wife of Varus.
47. *Consecratio* type of the Empress Mariniana.
48. Third brass coin of the Empress Helena, mother of Constantine the Great.
49–50. *Byzantine series.*—Gold *solidi* of Constans II., with Constantine Pogonatus, Heraclius, and Tiberius, and of Leo III. The obverses and reverses have been inadvertently disarranged.

PLATE V.

51. Silver prager-groschen of Wenceslas II., King of Bohemia (1278–1305).
52. Gold florin struck at Liegnitz, in Prussian Silesia, with the title of Wenceslas II., King of Bohemia and Poland, as Duke of Prussia.
53. Silver thaler of Berne, Switzerland, 1494.
54. Schauthaler of Maximilian I. of Austria, 1516.
55. Testone of Antoine, Duke of Lorraine, 1537.
56. Thaler of Charles III., Duke of Lorraine, 1603.
57. Liard of Maria Theresa, struck for the Austrian Netherlands, 1745. Copper.

PLATE VI.

58. Gold ducat of Johann von Zapoly, titular King of Hungary, 1531. The earliest Transsylvanian coin yet described.
59. Silver thaler of Achatius Barcsai, Prince of Transsylvania, 1659.
60. Silver thaler klippe of Enno III., Count of East Friesland, 1616.
61. Thaler of Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, 1632.
62. Gold ducat of Friedrich Wilhelm, Margraf of Brandenburg (afterward first King of Prussia), struck for Hindostan, 1694.
63. Gold ducat struck by the Municipality of Berlin in honour of the accession of Frederic the Great, 1740.

64. Silver coin of Nürnberg, 1773, with a view of the city.
65. Double gold ducat, with the portraits of Philip II. of Spain and his third wife, and his title as Count of Zeeland.
66. Gold ducat of Louis Napoléon, King of Holland, 1809.

PLATE VII.

67. Silver thaler of Christina, Queen of Sweden, 1642, struck for Pomerania.
68. Silver *obolo* or *denaretto* of Philip of Suabia, 1208, struck for Parma.
69. Gold ducat of the Florentine Republic, 13th c.
70. *Grosso* (silver) of the Roman Republic, 11th to 13th c.
71. Gold *zecchino* of Pope Innocent VIII.
72. Gold *zecchino*, *Sede Vacante*, 1700.
73. *Grosso* of Alfonso I., Duke of Ferrara, 1502–34.
74. Silver testone of Louis XII. of France, as Duke of Milan.
75. Silver grossone or *mezzo-scudo* of Florence, struck in 1530 under the Standard-bearer, Nicolo Guicciardini, as money of necessity.
76. Copper *grano* of Malta, 1785.

PLATE VIII.

77. *Piastro di argento* of Ferdinando I. Medici, 1587. First issue, exhibiting the Duke in his Cardinal's dress.
78. *Scudo di argento* of Pope Clement X., 1672.
79. Small silver coin of Pope Innocent XII., 1699.
80. *Scudo di argento* of the Republic of Lucca, 1754, exhibiting the legend of St. Martin and the Beggar.
81. Gold twenty-*lire* piece of Murat, King of the Two Sicilies, 1813.
82. Copper two-*tornesi* of Ferdinand II., King of the Two Sicilies (*Bomba*), 1842.
83. Five-*soldi* in copper of Vittorio Amadeo III., King of Sardinia, 1794.
84. Copper four-*denari* of Honorato III., Prince of Monaco, 1733.

PLATE IX.

85. Silver *osella* of Alvigi Mocenigo, Doge of Venice, 1763–1779.
86. Sixty-*tornesi* in copper, struck by Venice for Candia under the Doge Gio. Cornaro, about 1632.
87. Gold *dinhero* struck by Alfonso VIII., King of Castile (1158–1214), with Arabic characters.
88. *Real* of James III., King of Majorca, 1324–43. Silver.
89. *Real* of Henry IV., King of Castile and Léon, 1454–75.
90. *Peso* of Philip II. of Spain, struck at Potosi for Spanish America.
91. *Rupia* with the jugate busts of Maria I. and Pedro III. of Portugal, struck at and for Goa, 1783.
92. Hundred-*reis* piece of Maria II. of Portugal, 1853.
93. Gold *dirhem* of Hároun-el-Reschid, Caliph of Bagdad, 9th c. A.D.

*** Interesting in connection with the *Arabian Nights*.

94. Gold *mohur* of Akbar, Emperor of Hindostan, 1558–1605.

PLATE X.

95. Silver drachma, struck at Marseilles by Phœnician settlers, 5th c. B.C.
96. Billon denier of Pepin I., King of Aquitaine, 814–839.
97. Billon denier of Lothair, Emperor of Germany, struck at Chalons-sur-Saône, 9th c.
98. *Gros tournois* of Louis IX. of France (about 1250).
99. *Masse d'or* of Philippe IV. of France, 1285–1314.
100. Billon *obole* of Edward II. or III. of England, struck for Aquitaine.
101. *Anglo-Gallic Leopard d'or* of Edward III. of England, struck for Aquitaine at Poictiers.
102. —— *Hardit d'or* of Richard II. (1377–99).
103. —— *Angelet d'or* of Henry VI.
104. *Demi-louis d'or* of Louis XIV. of France, 1645.

105. *Louis d'or* of Louis XV., 1717.
106. *Louis d'or* of Louis XVI., 1774.
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108. Forty francs in gold of Bonaparte as First Consul, *An* 12.

PLATE XI.

109. *Britain.*—Gold stater of Verica.
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111. Silver penny of Alfred the Great, 26 grs. The Murchison example.
112. *Canopy* penny of William I.
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115. Hammered shilling of Elizabeth.
116. Shilling of James I.
117. Shilling of Charles I.
118. Shilling of Commonwealth, 1651.

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119. Shilling of Cromwell as Protector, 1658.
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121. Shilling, modern type, 1663.
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123. Current farthing of Anne, 1714.
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125. *Rosa Americana* (smallest size), 1722.
126. 96 *stuivers*, struck for Ceylon, 1809.
127. Silver penny of Alexander III. of Scotland (1249–85).
128. Gold bonnet-piece of James V. of Scotland, 1540.
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